

# THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

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*History of Great Britain, from the Revolution to the Session of Parliament ending A. D. 1793. By W. Belsham. 4 Vols. 4to. 4l. 4s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.*

ON the eventual utility of history it is unnecessary to expatiate, as that point has been so frequently and so strongly urged; but we have reason to lament that the enforcement of it has not been remarkably efficacious, when addressed to the rulers of nations. Princes and statesmen, instead of drawing conclusions from the examples and events of former times, too readily listen to the hasty dictates of their own minds, whether shallow or profound; follow their own prejudices, without reflecting on their fallacy; and eagerly pursue schemes which a small portion of historical knowledge would have induced them to consider, on judging by comparison, as rash and unpromising. This neglect, however, of a pleasing study, by those who might be particularly expected to cultivate it, will not derogate from its general merits.

The writer of the history which now offers itself to our notice, has fixed upon an important period for the renewed exercise of his talents. Having before published memoirs of our Hanoverian sovereigns, he has now made a retrograde motion to the times of William and Anne; and he will perhaps, in imitation of Hume (who began with the house of Stuart, and afterwards wrote an account of the earlier reigns), extend his work by tracing the history of this country to the remotest æra of record.

We are informed by Mr. Belsham, in his Preface, that 'his authorities, during the period in question, are chiefly Sir John Dalrymple and Mr. Macpherson, to whom the public owe great obligation for their interesting and important communications.' He subjoins a short *critique* on Burnet, Ralph, Tindal, and Smollet. He has justly characterised the two first; and he properly observes of the third, that his materials are 'thrown together in a sort of chaotic mass, at once unanimated and unenlightened.' Tindal, indeed, was a wretched

compiler, or rather a mere copyist; and, besides making many repetitions in transcribing from the Historical Register, Boyer's Annals, and other works, he would sometimes give inconsistent accounts of the same event, not with a view of exhibiting the variations of statement, but from indolence or want of discrimination.—To Dr. Smollet our author attributes 'talents;' but 'his genius (he adds) was *entirely* turned to the *low* and the *ludicrous*.' We think, however, that the serious parts of Smollet's novels, his Ode to Independence, and even his tragedy of the Regicide (the produce of his juvenile years), disprove the latter assertion. We also differ from Mr. Belsham with regard to the historical character of the same writer; for, though we do not entertain a high opinion of the doctor's merit in that department, we wish to see every person treated with candour and equity. 'Of the dignity and beauty of historic composition (it is affirmed) he had no conception; and much less could he boast of possessing any portion of its all-pervading and philosophic spirit.' But the preface to his history, in which he sketches the plan of the work, proves that he had *some* conception of those points of which he is said to have been ignorant; and, though he had not the philosophical penetration of Hume, he certainly was not deficient in sense or sagacity. 'His work (continues the severe censor) is a dull and often malignant compilation, equally destitute of *instruction* or of *amusement*.' This remark is, in one point, so inconsistent with a former part of Mr. Belsham's preface (intimating that 'much salutary instruction' may be derived from 'recorded facts,' notwithstanding the want of ability in the historian), and, in another respect, so contradictory to the observation of Pliny, '*historia quoque modo scripta delectat*,' and to the general opinion of readers, that, even if Smollet had scarcely risen above the rank of a dull and tasteless transcriber, like Tindal, the affirmation would not have been true.

As Mr. Coxe lately accused Mr. Belsham of extreme negligence and want of candour, our author has endeavoured to repel the charges; and we must allow, that he is not wholly unsuccessful; but the attack upon the former ground is not so strongly resisted as the latter imputation.

The reader is introduced to the reign of William by a summary mention of the chief occurrences which distinguished the twenty-eight years from the Restoration to the Revolution. In this sketch the unprincipled character of Charles II. is justly stigmatised: the earl of Clarendon is treated with a freedom which will displease bigots: the sale of Dunkirk is, in a great measure, vindicated: the acceptance of French gold, by the members of opposition, is justified as conducive to patriotic purposes: the supposed popish plot is treated as an



imposture: the arbitrary imprudence of James II. is exposed; and the account of William's success is followed by these apposite remarks.

'Such was the expedition and such the facility with which a revolution was accomplished, which in its consequences must be acknowledged one of the most interesting and important in the annals of history. From this period, a government was established, which had for its basis—what no other government had ever before expressly assumed—the natural and unalienable rights of mankind. From this period the grand question, whether government ought to be exercised for the advantage of the governors or the governed, was finally decided. Government was by the highest authority allowed, and even virtually asserted, to be a trust. And the inference could not with any degree of plausibility be disputed, that the men in whom this trust is vested, by whatever names or titles they may be distinguished, are ultimately responsible to the community for the proper exercise of it.' Vol. i. p. 53.

Annexed to the introduction is a plausible vindication of the first earl of Shaftesbury from the misrepresentations of Hume.

In entering upon the reign of William, the author mentions the state of political opinions, and gives his own sentiments in favour of genuine Whig principles. He proceeds to relate, with perspicuity and occasional energy, the incidents of those times.

When he speaks of the army of the viscount Dundee, he amuses himself with a description of the manners and customs of the Highlanders, as if they were a newly-discovered nation, inhabiting a very remote part of the world; and, in a note, he gives a specimen of Gaelic poetry from the remains attributed to Ossian. These excursions are pleasing, but unnecessary.

The account of the war in Ireland is concise, but sufficiently comprehensive. Having stated the conditions of that treaty which put an end to it, Mr. Belsham adds,

'Such were the terms which this devoted portion' [*the catholics*] 'of a great and generous but unfortunate nation, who had displayed a firmness and gallantry worthy of a far better cause, obtained from the wisdom and benignity of the British monarch. But great offence was taken at these articles, by the malignity of some, and the rapacity of others, who hoped and expected to have converted the whole country, for their own individual emolument, into one tremendous mass of misery, confiscation, and ruin. For to such a state of selfish and remorseless depravity may human nature be degraded, that, to use the forcible language of Lord Bacon, "there are those who would not hesitate to set their neighbour's house on fire, merely to roast their own eggs by the flames." The many thousands who retired to the

continent, left behind them, however, sufficient property to gratify any ordinary lust of wealth or vengeance: and the refugees were received, on their arrival in France, with that kindness and generosity which happily on so many occasions serve to soften the traits of the dark and terrific character of Louis XIV.' Vol. i. p. 120.

Of the correspondence maintained by many of William's ostensible friends with the court of St. Germain, the author thus speaks.

' There exists incontrovertible evidence that the earl of Marlborough, in common with many other persons of high rank and consequence, held a clandestine and unlawful correspondence with the court of St. Germaine's; and the disgrace of that nobleman was beyond all reasonable doubt owing to the authentic information received by the king of his treasonable practices. The dark and crooked policy of those who engaged in this extraordinary scene of dissimulation, makes it extremely questionable whether any measures were really taken by them with a view to facilitate the restoration of the late king. The earl of Marlborough, who was perhaps the greatest adept in this Machiavelian school, wrote, as appears, letters of deep contrition to the court of St. Germaine's, imploring pardon and forgiveness for his past conduct, which James thought it expedient to grant, though he justly entertained the greatest doubts respecting his present sincerity.' Vol. i. p. 146.

' Not only were such flagitious or problematic characters as Sunderland, Halifax, Monmouth, Marlborough, &c. deeply involved in these machinations and cabals, but men of the greatest private, and, in other respects, public virtue—Godolphin, Shrewsbury and Russel. Even the marquis of Carmarthen, one of the heads of the present administration, became a plotter or pretended plotter against the government: but the character of the earl of Nottingham, to his lasting honor, stands untainted and unimpeached. The most easy and obvious mode of accounting for the prevalence of a conduct so treacherous, is the extreme apprehension which appears to have been almost universally entertained of the eventual restoration of the late king. For the extraordinary political revolutions which had taken place in the course of the last half century—the dethronement and death of king Charles I.—the establishment of a commonwealth, with its sudden subversion—the consequent restoration of king Charles II.—the deposition and expulsion of James, and the surprising advancement of the prince of Orange to the crown, made the re-establishment of the late king appear incomparably more feasible to the contemporary actors than it is now easy to credit or conceive—supported as, it must ever be remembered, James at this period was by the mighty and, in the current opinion of numbers, irresistible power of France.' Vol. i. p. 146.



The character of sir John (afterwards lord) Somers is too encomiastic.

‘ Somers was a man of strict integrity, of great capacity for business, of the mildest and most engaging manners, of the most generous and liberal principles. Not satisfied with the reputation of being the first lawyer and statesman of the age, he was also an exquisite judge and most munificent patron of literary merit. In a word, in him were united all the virtues and accomplishments which can make a character either great or amiable; and history is proud to exhibit him as one of those exalted personages who occasionally appear to adorn and to enlighten a world too often ignorant or insensible of their merits.’ Vol. i. p. 168.

Our historian is too lenient to the memory of William, in treating of the massacre at Glencoe. He says,

‘ The king, moved with just resentment at the imposition practised upon him, dismissed the master of Stair from his service; and caused a commission to be passed under the great seal of Scotland for a pre-cognition in that matter, which is a usual mode in that kingdom of investigating crimes previous to bringing the criminals to a regular trial.’ Vol. i. p. 191.

Though the king may have been in some measure deceived by the master of Stair, his conduct in the affair merits censure. He did not withdraw his confidence from that inhuman oppressor; and, though he suffered an inquiry to be made into the business, he paid no regard to the request of the parliament of Scotland for the punishment of the assassins. ‘ It does not appear,’ (Mr. Belsham admits) that, when prosecutions were ordered to be instituted, the ‘ examples made were so signally conspicuous as might have been wished and expected.’ It does not appear, he might have said, that *any* examples were made. He dismisses the subject with these words:

‘ It seems probable, that the king, perceiving the quiet which had prevailed in the Highlands from that period, had, with the characteristic indifference of a soldier, harbored the opinion that the military execution of Glencoe, though attended with circumstances of culpable barbarity, was in itself justifiable, as calculated to produce effects permanently beneficial.’ Vol. i. p. 219.

But it seems to be more probable, that William did not consider it as a point of any importance, whether the act was justifiable or not.

The bill of attainder against sir John Fenwick is represented as unnecessary and impolitic, though the principle upon which it was defended is admitted by our author,

‘ The impolicy of the Whigs’ [*who promoted the bill*] ‘ was manifest in thus affording their antagonists the Tories an opportunity, which they eagerly embraced, of appearing in the advantageous light of the advocates and defenders of the constitution. For, however romantic it may be to deny the abstract principle, that there are extraordinary cases which justify extraordinary deviations from established rules; yet cannot the concluding observation of the lords’ protest be justly controverted, “ that sir John Fenwick is so inconsiderable a man, as to the endangering the peace of the government, that there needs no necessity of proceeding against him in this extraordinary manner.” Vol. i. p. 262.

The practicability of the treaty of partition, concluded in 1698, is controverted in the following reflections; and its policy is also disputed.

‘ The object of William was most assuredly to prevent a future desolating and destructive war in Europe. But, could it be imagined by a prince so celebrated for sagacity, that the emperor would acquiesce in an arrangement so injurious to his interests, and so contrary to his pretended rights? Would the court of Madrid ever be prevailed upon to confirm this arbitrary distribution of its territories, equally incompatible with national dignity and national prejudice? Could the sincerity of France itself be depended upon in this business? The court of Versailles had probably too much political penetration to expect this project to be peaceably executed. They hoped by these means to secure the amity, or at least the neutrality, of England; and any opposition from the emperor would disengage them from the obligation of confining themselves, if successful, within the letter of the treaty. “ It does not appear,” says lord Somers, in his famous letter to the king, “ in case this negotiation should proceed, what is to be done on your part, in order to make it take place: whether any more be required than that the English and Dutch should sit still, and France itself to see it executed. If that be so, what security ought we to expect, that, if by our being neuter the French be successful, the French will confine themselves to the terms of the treaty, and not attempt to make farther advantages of their success?” In these circumstances, a severe but obvious and indispensable duty was imposed on the lord chancellor to represent to the king, in the most energetic language, the pernicious consequences which must inevitably result from this strange and impracticable project; and peremptorily to refuse, at the risque of incurring the utmost displeasure of the king, to transmit the extraordinary and unconstitutional commission required of him. Even supposing, against all probability, the eventual acquiescence of Spain and the emperor in this treaty, what arrangement more favorable to the interests of France could even the caprice of chance devise, than the present, by which so many



rich and valuable provinces were incorporated with her empire?"  
Vol. i. p. 290.

With the treatment which William received from the commons, when they insisted on the dismissal of the Dutch guards, Mr. Belsham is not pleased. A message was delivered to that assembly, intimating that the king would send away the guards without delay, unless the house, 'out of consideration to him,' should 'find a way for continuing them longer in his service;' a favour which he would thankfully acknowledge.

'Far from complying with a request so natural and reasonable, the house of commons in a flame instantly resolved upon an address to the king, on a division of 175 to 156 voices, declaring "their unspeakable grief that his majesty should be advised to propose any thing to which they could not consent with due regard to that constitution which his majesty came over to restore, and so often exposed his royal person to preserve—and did in his gracious declaration promise, that all those foreign forces which came over with him should be sent back."—This was certainly a most ungracious mode of reminding the king of his gracious declaration, and favored much more of faction than of patriotism. To this intemperate address the king made a cool and judicious reply, expressing his entire confidence in the affections of his people, and repelling with firmness the insinuation that his wish to retain his native guards arose from any distrust of the attachment of his English subjects.

'The king saw and indignantly felt, nevertheless, how eager and incessant were the efforts of many individuals to traduce his character, and embarrass the measures of his government. In a confidential letter written by him at this period to Rouvigny earl of Galway, he says, "I see you are uneasy at the proceedings of the parliament here. I think you have too much cause to be so—It is not to be conceived how people here are set against the foreigners.—You will easily judge on *whom* this reflects. My measures must be regulated according as things go in the parliament, of which there is no being sure till the session is over.—There is a spirit of ignorance and malice prevails here beyond conception." Vol. i. p. 298.

The scheme of forming a settlement on the isthmus of Darien is strongly reprobated; and the ill success of the expedition is thus noticed, while the disingenuous behaviour of the king, in tantalising the Scots, is not censured.

'Nothing but misfortune attended this ill-fated and extravagant project. Of the ships sent out with stores and reinforcements, one took fire by accident, and a second was wrecked near Carthage, the cargo confiscated, and the crew sent to prison. Those who

reached the destined shore, finding their expectations wholly blasted, were wrought up to a pitch of insubordination and animosity, which utterly disqualified them from adopting any rational means either of subsistence or defence. In fine, seeing their inability to resist the force which the Spaniards were preparing to bring against them, they thought proper to sign a capitulation, and entirely to evacuate the Spanish coast, after the immense expence incurred in the successive equipments and preparations of the company, who were, however reluctantly, at length compelled to open their eyes, when their invincible obstinacy in folly had left them nothing to contemplate but their own beggary, bankruptcy and ruin.' Vol. i. p. 304.

The sketch of William's character is spirited; but some may think that it is too highly coloured.

' In his person he was not above the middle size, pale, thin, and valetudinary. He had a Roman nose, bright and eagle eyes, a large front, and a countenance composed to gravity and authority. All his senses were critical and exquisite. His words came from him with caution and deliberation; and his manners, excepting to his intimate friends, were cold and reserved. He spoke Dutch, French, English, and German, equally well; and he understood Latin, Spanish, and Italian. His memory was exact and tenacious, and he was a profound observer of men and things. He perfectly understood and possessed a most extensive influence over the political concerns and interests of Europe. Though far above vanity or flattery, he was pertinacious in his opinions; and, from a clear perception or persuasion of their rectitude, was too impatient of censure or control. He attained not to the praise of habitual generosity, from his frequent and apparently capricious deviations into the extremes of profusion and parsimony. His love of secrecy was perhaps too nearly allied to dissimulation and suspicion; and his fidelity in friendship to partiality and prejudice. Though resentful and irritable by nature, he harbored no malice, and disdained the meanness of revenge. He believed firmly in the truth of religion, and entertained an high sense of its importance. But his tolerant spirit, and his indifference to the forms of church government, made him very obnoxious to the great body of the clergy. He appeared born for the purpose of opposing tyranny, persecution, and oppression: and for the space of thirty years it is not too much to affirm that he sustained the greatest and most truly glorious character of any prince whose name is recorded in history. In his days, and by his means, the first firm and solid foundations were laid of all that is most valuable in civil society. Every vindication of the natural and unalienable rights of mankind was, till he ascended the throne of Great Britain, penal and criminal. To him we owe the assertion and the final establishment of our constitutional privileges. To him the intellectual world is indebted for



the full freedom of discussion, and the unrestrained avowal of their sentiments on subjects of the highest magnitude and importance. To sum up all, his character was distinguished by virtues rarely found amongst princes—moderation, integrity, simplicity, beneficence, magnanimity. Time, which has cast a veil over his imperfections, has added lustre to his many great and admirable qualities. His political views were in the highest degree laudable and upright. He had true ideas of the nature and ends of government: and the beneficial effects of his noble and heroic exertions will probably descend to the latest generations, rendering his name justly dear to the friends of civil and religious liberty, and his memory ever glorious and immortal.' Vol. i. p. 369.

It must be the earnest wish of every friend of liberty, that the effects alluded to may be perpetual; but the probability of such permanence is not perhaps very strong.

(*To be continued.*)

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*Antient Metaphysics. Volume Fifth. Containing the History of Man, in the Civilized State. 4to. 15s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1797.*

WITH the literary labours, the learning, and the singularities, of lord Monboddo, our readers cannot be unacquainted: but all, except his warm admirers, will probably be pleased to find that he is less prolix in the present volume than in that which was noticed in our Review for October, 1797; and it will be an additional gratification to observe, that, in the pages before us, his lordship's attention is in a great measure drawn from the inceptive civilisation of the ourang-outang to the state of man as he is, and that, instead of a credulous garrulity attempting to revive the currency of fiction, the reflections of a sensible and liberal mind, on some important parts of animal and political œconomy, are occasionally interspersed. These parts of the work present the writer in a light much more advantageous than that in which he appears when he is deluded by the reveries of Plato, or entangled among the subtilties of Aristotle.

In treating of the health and comfort which attend cleanliness of the body, he remarks, that

‘ The people of England have been at more pains, and more expence, than, I believe, any other people of the world, to restore health after it is lost, not only by physicians, surgeons, and apothecaries, and all sorts of drugs and medicines, but by erecting hospitals, more, I am persuaded, than are to be found in any other country. Yet disease, in England, still continues to increase; and

it is surprising how many of those, that are put into hospitals, die there, and particularly children. Of this I have given an example in the third volume of this work, where I have mentioned an hospital for children in London, in which, out of 74, there died 71 in a year. But the people of England have not been so attentive to the preserving health, a thing of much more value than the restoring it after it is lost. One of the things that preserves health, more than any thing else I know, is the daily use of the cold bath, by which, as I have said, we are prevented from living in the filth of our own bodies, and having that filth again taken in by our skins. This preventive of disease is particularly necessary among the common people, who cannot afford a clean shirt every day, and wear the same shirt, not only for days, but for weeks together. There is a part of the Highlands of Scotland, where, as I was informed by a clergyman, who was a native there, the country people wear their shirts, without shifting, till they are in rags; the consequence of which is, that they are all overrun with the itch, and must be liable to many more diseases. Now, this mischief might be in a great measure prevented by the frequent use of the cold bath; and, I think, it is worth the attention of government, to give the people of Scotland, and particularly those of the Highlands, an opportunity of using it, by erecting public baths, such as they have in the south of France, and which, I am persuaded, contribute very much to the health of the people there. The baths might be erected and kept going at a very small expence, which might be furnished by a trifling tax on the people of the several districts where the baths are erected.' P. 21.

The patriotic members of the community, by adopting the hints here benevolently thrown out, would be entitled to more applause, than they would deserve by adding to our territorial possessions, or by testifying the most exemplary solicitude for the observance of religious rites. It is obvious, that, independently of the salubrious consequences which would attend the institution of public baths, decency would be gratified by the removal of the offensive spectacles of nakedness so frequently exhibited near large towns in the bathing season.

To prove the pernicious influence of exorbitant wealth on the morals of a nation, the writer deduces many examples from ancient history; and he then adverts to the frequency of criminal punishments in this country, which he attributes to the same source.

'As there is more wealth, I believe, in England than in any other country of Europe, so there are, there, to be seen more bad effects of wealth than any where else; for there are, in England, more crimes and vices, more diseases and more indigence, than in any other nation now existing, or, I believe, that ever did exist. As to crimes, they abound so much, that our jails cannot hold our



convicts; and we are obliged to send out colonies, such as no nation ever sent out before, to a very distant country, till of late quite unknown; to which they are transported at a great expence, and maintained, when there, at a still greater\*.—Now, these crimes are almost all the effects of wealth. For the people of England I hold to be of as good natural dispositions as any people in the world. They are by nature kind and benevolent; nor is there any people now existing so benevolent, or that bestows so much in public or private charity. But wealth, which, as I have shown, naturally produces indigence, makes them steal, rob, and sometimes, though very rarely, murder; also forge; and, in carrying on commerce, cheat and practise every kind of fraud; to express one of which we have been obliged to invent a word, and to call it swindling. In other nations men commit crimes in the heat of passion, or from motives of jealousy and revenge; but, in England, it is indigence that produces almost all the crimes.—As to vices, they are the natural effects of wealth in all countries; and, as there is more wealth in England than in other countries, I believe there is likewise more vice. Diseases also are the natural effects of wealth in every country; and, therefore, there are likewise, in England, more diseases, and particularly that most dreadful disease consumption, of which more die than of any other two diseases; and, as it is children, or persons under age, who commonly die of it, it must be produced by the diseases or weaknesses of the parents. Now, I should be glad to know, whether crimes and vices, diseases and indigence, be not one or other of them, and much more altogether, the source of the misery of every nation?

\* There is one observation more that I will make upon the love of money. It is a passion which may be said to comprehend every other, as it furnishes the materials for gratifying not only our sensual appetites, but our vanity, and our taste for every thing we think beautiful or fine; also our ambition, particularly in Britain

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\* 'There is a man, whom I know, of the name of Walker, a purser in one of our frigates, and whom I have formerly mentioned, (vol. 4. p. 367.) who was four years in Botany Bay, longer, I believe, than any man at present in Europe has been. He lived for some time in my neighbourhood in the country; and I had much conversation with him upon the subject of our colony of convicts. He told me, that when he came away from Botany Bay, which was about two or three years ago, there were there 5000 convicts, and 1000 more in an island in the neighbourhood, called Norfolk Island. And, coming home, he met, upon the sea, several ships going to Botany Bay, full of more of them. I was in London when the first colony was sent off; and I was told, what I could not have believed, if I had not had it from the best authority, that interest was made by several men, who were not convicted, nor suspected of any crime, to be sent with the convicts to Botany Bay; and, I have heard, that others have committed petty larcenies, on purpose that they might be convicted and transported thither. Such it appears is the extreme poverty among the lower people of England.'

where money makes a man very eminent in the state and government of the country. It is, therefore, a most comprehensive passion: but it excludes what I think our greatest happiness in this life; and, that is the pleasure of loving and being loved; for a man, who is possessed by this passion, has neither love nor friendship for any man. Now, a man, who loves no man, can be beloved by no man, not even by his nearest relations; for, as Horace says, addressing himself to the man of money,

Non uxor saluum te vult, non filius; omnes  
Vicini oderunt, noti, pueri, atque puellae.  
Miraris, cum tu argento post omnia ponas,  
Si nemo præstet, quem non merearis, amorem?

Lib. i. Sat. i.

‘ This passion, in Britain, is as universal as it is comprehensive, money being the pursuit, not only of almost every private man but of the public; for our legislature, when it is assembled, is chiefly employed about money; and the principal business of our minister is to contrive means how to get it, and how to lay it out. And this may be a reason, why our parliaments, and ministers, give so little attention to the three great articles of the political system, the health, the morals, and the numbers of the people.’ p. 76.

Truth and wisdom appear in the foregoing reflections.—An avidity for wealth seems of late to have degraded the character of Britons, while the prodigality of public expenditure has more than kept pace with the acquisitions of commerce. We hope, however, that, as his lordship and the ministry seem to be on amicable terms, his suggestions on this topic will be regarded, and that, when our country shall repose from the agitation of war, some attention will be shown to the health and the morals of the people.

In our progress through the contents of this volume, we have had occasion to regret the want of respect discovered by the author for the talents and productions of Locke. The mere preference of the Aristotelian school, however fondly expressed, might have been forgiven, as the infirmity of classical and philosophical dotage; but, when that preference is accompanied with remarks of contumely and contempt for the author of the *Essay on the Human Understanding*, it must excite alternate disgust and indignation. It is sufficient that literary curiosity condescends to inspect the whimsical fabric of his lordship’s system—let not his *tailed monsters* be permitted to whisk their filthy appendages in the eyes of common sense.

From this reprehensible part of the work, we turn with pleasure to a passage that evinces the just agricultural notions and the benevolent feelings of the author.



With regard to the class of cottagers,

‘ Scotland, in former times, was very populous : for the farms were very small ; and they were cultivated chiefly, I may say altogether, by cottagers, who lived upon the farm with their families, having a small portion of land assigned to them, which the tenant cultivated for them ; and he gave them, at the same time, grass for a cow : so that they were enabled to live very comfortably, and to bring up their families. Even so late as my younger days, there were no farms that had not cottagers, more or fewer, living upon the farms. But now things are much altered. The tenants think that they can make more profit of the cottager-land, by taking it into their own hand, and, cultivating it, and, instead of cottagers for servants, by employing unmarried servants that they keep in the house. In this way was produced a desolation of a farm in my neighbourhood, of which I have an account from my parish minister, who says, that the number of souls above the age of seven, that is the examinable age, on this farm, about 23 years ago, was 127, and now there are not above 70 of all ages upon it. And many other farms, in the county where I live, are more or less depopulated in the same way. But, by the great increase of late of servants’ wages, the tenants begin to find that they are both better served, and cheaper, by cottagers, as their forefathers were, than by servants whom they keep in the house. And, indeed, house servants are now hard to be got, by the number of cottagers, who are the breeders of servants, being so much diminished. But it gives me great pleasure to observe, that some of my tenants are served, as in former times, by cottagers only, and keep no farm servants in the house, unless perhaps a boy. One of them, who pays me no more than 30*l.* of rent, has no less than 13 cottagers living upon his farm. This farm is pretty extensive : but I have a tenant in the same part of my estate, which lies among hills, who possesses no more than 6 or 8 acres, upon which he has four families including his own ; and I have, on the same part of my estate, seven tenants, each of whom possesses no more than 3 acres of arable land, and some moorish ground for pasture, part of which they have already cultivated ; and they pay me no more than 12*s.* for each acre of the arable land, and nothing for the moor. I am persuaded I could more than double the rent of their land by letting it off to one tenant : but I should be sorry to increase my rent by depopulating any part of the country ; and I keep these small tenants as a monument of the way in which, I believe, a great part of the low lands of Scotland was cultivated in antient times.

‘ The consequence of this estate of mine being so peopled, is that there is no want of servants in it, which are very much wanted in other parts of the country ; for, as I have observed, tenants and cottagers are the breed of servants. I am so anxious about the population of the country, that I have caused number the inhabi-

tants of that part of my estate, where the farms, I have mentioned, lie; and they amount to about 200; while the rent I draw is not 100*l*. If every estate in Britain was to be so peopled, in proportion to its rent, the number of inhabitants would be more than quadrupled.

As I have mentioned the number of inhabitants on some farms of my estate, I will also mention the number of them upon my own farm, where the number has not been diminished during the last 60 years; (how much longer I do not know; for neither my father nor I ever turned out any cottagers;) so that, from the number of them now upon my farm, the reader may judge what the population of the country was in antient times.

The whole extent of my farm is about 300 acres; of which only 200 acres are in my natural possession, and cultivated by cottagers living upon the farm, and by only one unmarried servant, whom I keep in the house, with a boy who herds the cattle; all the rest of the farm is possessed by cottagers and small tenants. Of these, some possess a small village, to most of whom I give land, which I cultivate for them; and they practise different trades, by which, and by the land, they live very comfortably. Upon the whole farm, there are, including the numbers in the village I have mentioned, 27 cottagers and small tenants possessing a few acres. I think, therefore, that my farm is very well peopled, very much better than most farms in Scotland are now-a-days; though, I believe, not so well as they were in antient times. There are many proprietors, I know, who think that the number of cottagers on their land is a grievance, and they desire to be quit of them; but, for my part, I am fond of them, and call them my people; and have a pleasure in numbering them and seeing them increase, and am sorry when any of them leaves my land.

These observations, upon the numbers of so mean a race of people as cottagers, may appear, to many of my readers, very trifling. But the population of the country must, as I have said, depend chiefly upon the number of cottagers in it: and, I think, I have shown that they are a most useful race of men, as by them, chiefly, his majesty's army and fleet are recruited; nor without them could the many arts, that are practised in Britain, be carried on. And I would have the great and rich landholders consider, that it is the cottagers, chiefly, who supply the servants that minister to their wants and to their luxury and vanity. I think, therefore, that it is a duty which every landholder owes to his country to attend to the population, as well as the cultivation, of his estate.' P. 306.

We are happy to escape for a moment from the recollection of lord Monboddo's eccentricities as a writer, by contemplating this truly patriarchal picture. Long may he pre-



serve his honourable station in the groupe ! The advice which concludes the extract is a composition of benevolence and sound policy ; for, as it is feelingly and justly said in a popular poem,

‘ Princes and lords may flourish or may fade,  
A breath can make them as a breath has made ;  
But a bold peasantry, a nation’s pride,  
When once destroyed, can never be supplied.’

We shall here conclude our account of the fifth volume of the ‘ Antient Metaphysics,’ which, while it preserves the vein of singularity that has distinguished the speculations of the author, makes some compensation in other respects. As he is likely to occupy without competition the walk which he has chosen, we fear that he will continue his lucubrations with a perseverance more inflexible than our critical patience ; but, if we should feel ourselves distressed by the appearance of new volumes, we shall rely on the candid sympathy of our readers.

*The Henriade, translated into English Verse. Part II. 410.*

11. 1s. sewed. No Bookseller’s Name.

THE first part of this version we have already noticed with approbation \*. The remaining cantos are translated with equal fidelity and spirit. The sense of a passage, indeed, is sometimes altered, and sometimes weakened ; but we are convinced with Mr. Cowper, that it is impossible to avoid these faults in a translation fettered by rhyme. In the descent of St. Louis, we may exemplify the remark.

‘ Scarce had he spoke—descending from the skies  
A form ærial stood before his eyes :

Reclin’d majestic on the lap of air,

Obedient winds th’ approaching phantom bear :

Immortal glories round his temples shine,

And heav’nly beauties mark the form divine.

‘ With mingled sounds of horror and of grief,

“ Cease, cease !” he cries, “ forbear, unhappy chief ;

Let not one hour of guilty rage efface

The endless honors of my royal race,

O’erturn my altars, boundless ruin spread,

And leave the gloomy monarch o’er the dead :

\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XXII, p. 407.

Forbear !"—Struck with the more than mortal sound,  
 Th' astonish'd troops fall prostrate on the ground,  
 And havoc paus'd : but Henry's lab'ring breast  
 Glory still fir'd, and martial rage possess'd :  
 As billows heaving when the winds have blown.  
 " O spirit of a world to us unknown  
 " Explain," he cries " the dread command you bear :"  
 Then sounds of heav'nly sweetness reach'd his ear.  
 " The fainted king, whom France reveres, you view,  
 The friend, the father of your race and you,  
 Who once on earth the toils of warfare bore,  
 Whose God your faithless soul adores no more.  
 But Lewis still admires, esteems his son,  
 And God prepares to place him on his throne ;  
 Paris her sov'reign shall with joy receive,  
 Mercy shall more than force or valor give.  
 So God decrees : his high resolves I bear."  
 The hero heard his voice with awful fear :  
 Passion no more his soul relenting feels,  
 Lowly before the fainted king he kneels ;  
 Soft tears of gratitude bedew his face :  
 Thrice would his longing arms the saint embrace,  
 Thrice from his touch the airy form retires,  
 As the thin vapour which in air transpires.' P. 146.

In this passage the first lines are far from being equal to the original.

————— du profond d'une nuë  
 Un fantôme éclatant se présente à la vuë.  
 Son corps majestueux, maître des élémens,  
 Descendoit vers Bourbon sur les ailes des vents.  
 De la divinité les vives étincelles  
 Étaoient sur son front des beautés immortelles.

A spirit 'descending from the skies,' offers a weaker image than one which presents itself from the depth of a cloud ; and the scriptural nobleness of the expression, ' he descended upon the wings of the winds,' is lost in the corresponding line of the translation. The speech of Louis too is weakened. In the original, it conveys admonition in the language of reproach.

Tu vas abandonner aux flammes, au pillage,  
 De cent rois tes ayeux l'immortel héritage ;  
 Ravager ton pays, mes temples, tes trésors,  
 Egorger tes sujets, et régner sur des morts.

The English imperative, though apparently more commanding, is less forcible than this language. In the lines im-



mediately following, the translation is superior to the original.

The line—

‘ Mercy shall more than force or valor give,’  
is more obscure than the French passage :

Dans Paris, ô mon fils, tu rentreras vainqueur,  
Pour prix de ta clémence, et non de ta valeur.

The description of the palace of Love is a favourable specimen of the poem and translation.

‘ There, to the laughing God, in flow’rs array’d,  
The graceful throng their daily homage paid,  
And study’d at his shrine the fatal art  
To please, seduce, and captivate the heart.  
Young Hope, in flatt’ring smiles for ever gay,  
To Love’s mysterious altar leads the way :  
The Graces round, half-veil’d and half in sight,  
Enticing motion with their voice unite ;  
While Indolence, luxurious, stretch’d along,  
Listless and loit’ring, listens to the song.  
There, silent Myst’ry, with the veil she wears,  
And eyes conversing with the soul, appears ;  
Attentive tender Cares, and Sports, and Smiles,  
And wanton Mirth, and all that thought beguiles ;  
Lascivious pleasures, group’d with graceful ease,  
With soft Desires that more than Pleasure please.

‘ Such the delightful entrance of the dome :  
But farther, if with guardless step you roam  
And thro’ the deep recess audacious pry,  
What alter’d scenes of mis’ry strike your eye !

‘ No pleasures form’d in playful groups invite,  
No dulcet sounds the ravish’d ears delight ;  
No tender cares :—but in their place appear  
Sullen Complaint, and cloy’d Disgust, and Fear ;  
There, fever’d Jealousy with livid hue,  
Unwinds with falt’ring steps Suspicion’s clew ;  
Arm’d with the blood-stain’d instruments of death,  
There, Rage and Hatred spread their poison’d breath ;  
While Malice, brooding over secret guile,  
Repay’s their labours with a treach’rous smile ;  
Remorse, that never sleeps, brings up their rear,  
Hates his own deeds, and drops a barren tear.

‘ There, Love, capricious child, has fix’d his reign,  
With Pains and Pleasures for his motley train ;  
Cruel and kind by turns, but ever blind,  
That dear delight, that torment of mankind,

Thro' ev'ry camp, thro' ev'ry senate glides,  
 Commands the warrior, o'er the judge presides;  
 Still welcome to the heart, he still deceives,  
 Pants in each breast, and thro' all nature lives.' P. 200.

The image of Jealousy is better in the original; that of Remorse is improved by the translator. There is a disagreeable rhyme in the line,

'Cruel and kind by turns, but ever blind.'

The version, upon the whole, is executed with ability; and we only lament that the labour and skill of the translator were not employed upon a better poem. Voltaire may pass for an excellent epic writer in France, where so few rivals appear in that department; but, in other countries, the name of the poet will not atone for the insipidity of the poem.

The translator is said to be a gentleman of Bath. We are pleased to see a respectable and numerous list of subscribers to a version so justly entitled to praise, and published with a motive so meritorious as that of alleviating distress.

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*Nereis Britannica; or a Botanical Description of British Marine Plants, in Latin and English, accompanied with Drawings from Nature. By John Stackhouse, Esq. Fellow of the Linnean Society. Number II. Folio. 12s. 6d. Robinsons. 1797.*

HAVING given an account of the first number of this valuable publication \*, and not only traced out the general plan of the work, but also illustrated its particular mode of execution by exhibiting an entire article both in Latin and in English, we now proceed to notice the prefatory discourse to this second fasciculus, which is in fact a continuation and extension of the physiological observations on the structure and fructification of fuci, contained in the preface to the first.

Having procured a good compound microscope, Mr. Stackhouse began his new series of observations on the terminating fruit of the *fucus ferratus*.

'Having found some of these in maturity, which was evident from their yellow colour, and a sort of semi-transparency, and, likewise, from the apertures of the external tubercles discharging mucus plentifully, I cut out a transverse slice from the middle, and, having pared off the internal skin on each side of a part of it, I placed the piece on the field of my compound microscope fitted with the lowest power (No. 6). I perceived that the internal substance, which appeared glossy and colourless to the naked eye, was in fact a beautiful network of capillary threads with orbicular masses or

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\* See our XVIIIth Volume, New Arr. p. 419.



granules of a different substance, darker coloured, and not reticulated. These masses were either near the internal coat, or adhering to it, and were furnished with five or six pear-shaped seeds each. The external tubercles, of which there were five in the piece under examination, had very sensible apertures, as viewed under the glass, and communicated with the internal process. Having made this discovery with my weakest power at first, to guard against optical deception, I applied my highest powers (No. 1. 2.) to the same object: with these I plainly perceived that the reticulated transparent fibres, or threads, were in reality tubes forming meshes, and intersecting each other; and furnished at intervals with transparent septa, or divisions.

My next attention was paid to the fruit of the bladder fucus in the same state of maturity. I cut out a slice containing a part of the external coat, and some of the internal clear mucus, which was solid enough to bear cutting, and submitted it to investigation under the different powers abovementioned. The same internal structure was visible, but much more beautifully arranged, which arose probably from the fruit having its coats more expanded, and consequently affording more room on the inside. In this, likewise, as the cut was made through the external tubercle, the passage from thence to the internal orbicular masses was very conspicuous. Having met with *F. bifurcatus* of major Velley, the *F. tuberculatus* of Hudson, and of the Linnean Transactions, in full fruit, with the summits beautifully transparent, and shewing the granules to the naked eye, when held up to the light, I cut the summit down lengthways, and took out a slice, and submitted it to investigation, and the internal structure was perfectly analogous to those before described. I have had opportunities during the course of the last year of repeating my experiments on these plants at my leisure, and, likewise, of extending them to the fruit pods of the kindred species—*F. nodosus*, *F. spiralis*, *F. canaliculatus*, &c. I pursued the same mode of cutting a transverse slice from the middle of the pod, and was happy to find a perfect analogy in their mode of fructification: the only specific distinctions I found, were in the form of the meshes, in the size and shape of the seeds, and in the number contained in each orbicular mass.

A similar mode of fructification I observed in some species of fuci, differing widely in habit from those already mentioned, and not having an appropriate fruit-pod. Among these are to be reckoned the *F. loreus*, a succulent plant with masses of seeds, and internal tubercles throughout its whole length. This plant, on having transverse slices cut through it, shews the tubular organization and the masses of seeds, but with this difference, that the tubes, though occasionally intersecting each other, are in general flexuous and wavy; the granules, or masses of seeds in this species, contain from three to six each. *F. tamariscifolius* has its summits above the imbedded bladder pretty much swollen at the time of

fruiting, and the dissecting knife discovers the tubular process, and the masses of seeds: *F. caespitosus*, a very minute species recently discovered by me, has a similar fructification, and it may fairly be concluded that many of the shrubby fuci do not differ essentially from those already described.

\* It having been hinted to me from high botanical authority that the pear-shaped bodies described and figured by me, as they appear in the compound microscope, might not be real seeds, but only gems, or particles of the medullary substance of the different plants; as it seemed impossible from their extreme minuteness to dissect their component parts with sufficient accuracy, in order to insure conviction, I resolved to procure, if possible, the spontaneous discharge of the seeds in sea water, in order to submit them to a more accurate examination. I likewise conceived the idea that I might close my experiment by sowing the seeds on sea pebbles, and by alternate immersions and emersions procure seedling plants from those seeds. I selected three species, viz. *F. ferratus*, *F. canaliculatus*, and *F. bifurcatus*. I carefully detached these plants with their bases uninjured from the rock, and placed them in wide-mouthed glass jars, with a change of sea water every twelve hours. In the course of a week I succeeded in procuring the seeds, which now appeared oval rather than pear-shaped, and, when ripe, burst asunder transversely in the middle with an explosion: these seeds were inclosed in a bright mucus immiscible with sea water, and likewise specifically heavier than it; so as to serve the double purpose of carrying them to the bottom, and of affixing them to the rock when settled there by their gravity. This spontaneous discharge of similar shaped bodies, all inclosed in a glassy mucus, and all opening transversely, would hardly have needed the additional corroboration of causing them to vegetate in order to evince their being actual seeds; this, however, I likewise happily accomplished \*.' P. ix.

At the conclusion of the preface to the first fasciculus, a persuasion was expressed, that the families of these marine plants would be properly arranged, and discriminations of

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\* \* As many curious persons, who occasionally visit sea-bathing places, may be desirous of ascertaining these facts under their own eyes, I shall detail the experiments I made. Having procured a number of wide-mouthed jars, together with a syphon to draw off the water without shaking or disturbing it, on September 7, 1796, I placed my plants carefully in the jars with their bases downwards, as in their natural state; on the following morning I decanted off the sea water, and, letting it subside in the basin, I found a few particles at bottom, which, on being viewed in the microscope, appeared to be little fragments detached from the surface by friction in carriage. I then poured a fresh quantity of sea water on the plants, and placed them in a window facing south: on the following morning the jar containing the plants of *F. canaliculatus* discharged into the basin a few yellowish grains, which, on examining them, I found to be the actual seeds of the plant; they were rather oval than pear-shaped, but the most curious circumstance attending the observation was,



essential character would be prefixed to each, at a period not very distant; and, indeed, the discoveries of our author have enabled him to sketch out a new arrangement of the plants hitherto, however discordantly, huddled together under the name of fuci. He divides them into six genera, assigning to each genus its subordinate species, according to the different modes of fructification. We shall present our readers with the characters of these genera; but must refer them to the work itself for the distribution of the species, and for a variety of curious particulars. We are introduced to the new distribution by this remark:

‘The anomaly that prevails respecting the plants which constitute the genus *fucus* is confessed by every writer, and however feeble the attempt here made to substitute a better arrangement, it is hoped it may stimulate abler botanists to unite their labours, in endeavouring to remove the opprobrium that rests on this part of the class *cryptogamia*.’

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that each individual seed was not in contact with the water, but enveloped with a bright mucilaginous substance. It was easy to guess the wise œconomy of nature in this disposition, which, as hinted above, serves a double purpose; each equally necessary towards continuing the species. On the following morning a greater quantity of seeds were discharged by this plant, and at this time a few seeds were procured from *F. ferratus*; but this latter plant discharged such a quantity of mucous fluid, that the sea water in which the plant was immersed was of the consistence of thin syrup, and, consequently, the seeds being kept suspended, it was difficult to separate them. The seeds of *F. canaliculatus*, however, were numerous, and visible to the naked eye, and, after letting the water rest for a few minutes, it was no difficult matter by gently inclining the basin to pour off the water, and let the seeds remain. In performing this operation I was witness to an explosion or bursting of one of these seeds or pericarps, which agitated the water considerably under the microscope, and brought to my recollection the circumstance mentioned by major Velez during his investigation of *F. vesiculosus*. I at last obtained a discharge of seeds likewise from *F. bifurcatus*; these perfectly resembled the others. Having established this point, viz. that marine plants scatter their seeds in their native element without violence, when ripe, and without awaiting the decay of the frond, I next procured some sea pebbles and small fragments of rock taken from the beach, and, after having drained off the greatest part of the water in the jar, I poured the remainder on the pebbles. I left them dry for some time that they might affix themselves: I then fastened strings to them, and alternately sunk them in sea water in a wide-mouthed stone jar, and left them exposed to the air, in order to imitate as nearly as possible their peculiar situation between high and low water-mark, and when the weather was rainy I took care to expose them to it. In less than a week a thin membrane was discoverable on the surface of the pebble where the seeds had lodged with a naked eye: this gradually extended itself, and turned to a darkish olive colour. It continued increasing in size till at last there appeared mucous papillæ, or buds coming up from the membrane: these buds when viewed in the glass were rather hollow in the centre, from whence a shoot pushed forth: in some instances they seemed to rise on a short thick footstalk, and in this latter case resembled in some measure the peziza-formed seedling of *F. loreus* (see pl. xii. A. B.), and the others without stems were like the stemless pezizæ.

## ' FUCUS.

' CHAR. GEN.—Fructificatio mucosa, pellucida, granulis sub-orbicularibus seminiferis intus: papillis conicis foratis extus-terminalis.

## ' CERAMIUM.

' CHAR. GEN.—Fructificatio mucosa, pellucida, sine granulis seminiferis: papillis invisibilibus—per totam frondem.

## ' CHONDRUS.

' CHAR. GEN.—Pericarpium ovatum, immersum, utrinque prominens; seminulis intus in muco pellucido.

## ' SPHÆROCOCCUS.

' CHAR. GEN.—Granula seminifera sub-orbicularia; adnata vel immersa; sessilia vel pedunculata.

## ' CHORDA.

' CHAR. GEN.—Fructificatio mucosa in cavitate frondis cylindricæ: seminulis glomeratis, nudis, cuti adhærentibus.

## ' CODIUM.

' CHAR. GEN.—Fructificatio in tubulis implicatis—frons cylindrico-compressa; statu madido, spongiformis; sicco, tomentosa.

## ' FUCUS.

' FRUCTIFICATION.—A jelly-like mass, with imbedded seed-bearing granules and external conical papillæ—terminating\*.

## ' CERAMIUM.

' FRUCTIFICATION.—A jelly-like mass, without the seed-bearing granules: internal, universal: papillæ invisible.

## ' CHONDRUS.

' FRUCTIFICATION.—An ovate, rigid, imbedded pericarp, containing seeds in a clear mucus, and prominent in either surface.

## ' SPHÆROCOCCUS.

' FRUCTIFICATION.—External globular pericarps, adnate or immersed; sessile or pedunculate; containing seeds as above.

## ' CHORDA.

' FRUCTIFICATION.—A mucous fluid in the hollow part of a cylindrical frond, with naked seeds affixed inwardly.

## ' CODIUM.

' FRUCTIFICATION.—Invisible; frond roundish; soft and spongy when wet; velvety, when dry.'

We afterwards meet with a synoptic table of the species, arranged under their respective genera; and, in the Latin preface, we have a summary view of the recent discoveries of our botanist with regard to the structure and fructification of the species figured and described in his first fasciculus. His observations have convinced us, that neither the air-bladders,

\* The physiological observations detailed above apply to this genus exclusively.'



nor the mucous glands opening on the surface, of the *F. vesiculosus* and *ferratus*, have any concern with the fructification, and that the pencils of fibres, fringing the mouths of these glands, are merely inspissated mucus.

This number contains the characters, synonyms, descriptions, and coloured figures of twenty species, viz. *F. saccharinus*, *phyllitis*, *nodosus*, *loreus*, *filum*, *filiculosus*, *tamariscifolius*, *osmunda*, *pinnatifidus*, *lacerus*, *jubatus*, *stellatus*, *palmatius*, *edulis*, *cæspitosus*, *corneus*, *crispus*, *echinatus*, *sedoides*, *thrix*. Ten of these are now figured for the first time, and four of them are entirely new.

Whether Mr. Stackhouse's arrangement of this tribe of plants be or be not received by the generality of botanists, it must be admitted that the attempt is worthy of praise; and the publication of his synopsis will probably stimulate other cultivators of this science either to aim at the improvement of his plan, or at the formation of a new one; and we hope that the discoveries which he has already made will ensure a continuation of his zeal and diligence.

From a transient view of the species of fuci which yet remain to be described and figured, we think it probable that a third fasciculus, larger than the second, may complete the work.

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*Memoirs of the Life and Administration of Sir Robert Walpole, by William Coxe. (Continued from p. 141.)*

SO copious and so important are these Memoirs, that we could not, with due respect to the work, conclude our account in one article; and the extent of the correspondence will require a continuation of our remarks in a subsequent number.

Having brought down our last survey to the time of the decease of George I. we enter upon a reign in which sir Robert Walpole had even a greater sway than he before enjoyed, though, on the accession of the new king, he was in danger of losing his interest at court by the superior influence of sir Spencer Compton. The circumstances by which his dismissal was prevented, have been mentioned in our review of the works of his son Horace\*. His principal friend, on that occasion, was queen Caroline, who had a much greater influence in political affairs than she is generally supposed to have had. The Tories, to whom his talents and spirit rendered him highly obnoxious, were extremely chagrined at the establishment of his power; and they resolved to exert all

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\* See the 251st page of our present volume.

their efforts against him, in conjunction with associates who were equally discontented.

It was at this period (says Mr. Coxe) that the opposition began to form itself into consistency, and to compose a firm and compact phalanx.

‘ Until the death of George the First, the component parts of this heterogeneous body, which consisted of a few disappointed Whigs, Tories, and Jacobites, did not cordially coalesce. Many of those Whigs and moderate Tories, who looked up to that event as a prelude to their own admission into the ministry, kept aloof from those who, as being professed Jacobites, or violent Tories, could not expect the same success. But no sooner had the continuance of Walpole in office annihilated their hopes, than the whole body became compact and united. In this respect, the Whigs became Tories, the Tories Whigs; and the Jacobites assumed every shape which tended to promote their views, by distressing government, and harassing the minister, whom they considered as the great supporter of the house of Brunswick.

‘ The chief aim of the minister was to comprehend almost all the Tories as enemies to the government, by the name of Jacobites, or at least to give that stigma to every one who was not a professed and known Whig. With this view, his own administration being naturally supported on a Whig foundation, he endeavoured to attach to himself all those who had been dependent on Sunderland. With some he succeeded, but not with all; and of those whom he could not gain, several remained in their employments, because they were protected by the Hanover junto. This body of Whigs, small but of considerable eminence, remained his enemies to the time of the king's death, watching for every opportunity to ruin him; and from the accession of George the Second, commenced the opposition which became afterwards so troublesome and formidable.’ Vol. i. p. 293.

The first treaty that was signed after the confirmation of Walpole's power by the new sovereign, was that which was adjusted with the duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbittel. This compact seems to have been too unimportant, and the aid which was expected from the duke was too contemptible, to justify the observations which follow :

‘ This treaty, negotiated between lord Townshend and count Dehn, the confidential minister of the duke of Brunswick, was signed at Wolfenbittel, on the 23d of November 1727. It stipulated a renewal of the family compact, according to the treaty of the 6th of May 1661, by which Brunswick was to be kept for the common safety of the house of Lunenburgh, and not delivered up to any other power; a mutual guaranty of dominions; mutual assistance in case of attack; a subsidy of £.25,000 a year, during four years, to the duke of Brunswick, who was to furnish at least



5,000 men. This treaty, if considered in its general effects and tendency to the pacification of Germany, was a master-piece of policy : it united the two branches of the house of Lunenburgh, who had been long at variance ; and by preventing the progress of the Imperial arms, saved the electorate of Hanover from hostile inroads.' Vol. i. p. 302.

Sir Robert's pacific disposition manifested itself in his promotion of the treaty of Seville ; and, when it was apprehended that the emperor would oppose the execution of a part of that treaty, the minister exerted his influence with such success, that the court of Vienna agreed to an accommodation.

The capacity of the duke of Newcastle, one of Walpole's associates in the administration, has been contemptuously depreciated by many writers ; but Mr. Coxe affirms, that

' he had much better abilities than are usually attributed to him. He had a quick comprehension ; he was an useful and frequent debater in the house of peers ; had an answer ready on all occasions, and spoke with great animation, though with little arrangement, and without grace or dignity. He wrote with uncommon facility, and with such fluency of words, that no one ever used a greater variety of expressions ; and it is a remarkable circumstance, that in his most confidential letters, written with such expedition as to be almost illegible, there is scarcely a single erasure or alteration.' Vol. i. p. 328.

The transactions of sir Robert's government are circumstantially related by our author, more particularly after the resignation of lord Townshend, whose retreat left the former without a rival at court. He continued his endeavours to maintain peace, and promote the commercial prosperity of the nation. But his alienation of the sinking fund was a practice which we cannot approve ; and Mr. Coxe admits, that ' it is a dark speck in his financial administration.'

The obnoxious scheme of excise occupies a long chapter ; but we do not perceive any novelty in the report of the proceedings.

In the account of the debate on the motion for a repeal of the septennial act, Mr. Coxe censures those ' partial reporters ' who have not taken notice of the minister's reply to sir William Wyndham's celebrated speech ; and he seems to think that no late writers have mentioned the answer ; but an inspection of the last general history of England would have undeceived him.

When a continental war broke out in 1733, George II. was desirous of engaging in it ; but Walpole studiously checked his eagerness ; and his persuasions were urged with efficacy. The minister was likewise successful in dissuading the king

from a league which he wished to form with the courts of Stockholm and Copenhagen.

The progress of the misunderstanding between the king and his son is related by our author with some degree of candor; and Walpole is justly blamed for his conduct on the occasion.

‘ It cannot be denied that the conduct of the prince had given great and deserved offence to the king and queen, and that in particular his behaviour to the queen had been highly disrespectful, yet it cannot at the same time be sufficiently lamented, that the minister involved in the interests of party, the feuds of the royal family. He considered the struggle as much between himself and opposition, as between the king and prince, and knowing the prince’s aversion to his ministry, viewed a cordial reconciliation as tending to his removal.’ Vol. i. p. 539.

The disinclination of sir Robert to a rupture with Spain is noticed with due approbation by his biographer; and, after a detail of the circumstances which led to a declaration of war, and of the difficulties in which his reluctance involved him, we find these remarks:

‘ Thus situated, and thus embarrassed, thwarted by the king, counteracted by the cabinet, reviled by the nation, and compelled to declare war against his own opinion, a simple and natural question arises; Why did he not resign? Why did he still maintain a post exposed to so many difficulties, and subject to so much obloquy? His intimate friends urged him to take this step, when the convention [*with Spain*] was carried in the house of commons by a majority of 28. In fact, he did request the king’s permission to resign. He stated his embarrassments: he observed, that his opposition to this war would be always imputed as a crime, and that any ill success in carrying it on would be attributed to him. The king remonstrated against this resolution, exclaiming, “Will you desert me in my greatest difficulties?” and refused to admit his resignation. The minister reiterated his wishes, and the king again imposed silence in so authoritative a manner, that he acquiesced, and remained at the helm.

‘ But his compliance with the king’s commands is by no means sufficient for his justification. Had he come forward on this occasion, and declared that he had opposed the war as unjust, and contrary to the interests of his country, but finding that the voice of the people was clamorous for hostilities, he had therefore quitted a station which he could not preserve with dignity, as he was unwilling to conduct the helm of government, when he could not guide it at his own discretion, and to be responsible for measures which he did not approve: had he acted this noble and dignified part, he would have risen in the opinion of his own age, and have secured the applause of posterity.



‘ The consequence of his continuance in office was repeated mortifications from those with whom he acted, and insults from those who opposed him, and that in less than two years from this period, he was reduced to a compulsory resignation.

‘ The truth is, that he had neither resolution or inclination to persevere in a sacrifice which circumstances seemed to require, and to quit a station which long possession had endeared to him. But ministers are but men; human nature does not reach to perfection; and who ever quitted power without a sigh, or looked back to it without regret?’ Vol. i. p. 625.

The ill success of the war gave such vigour to the assaults which were made upon Walpole by his parliamentary opponents, that he began to despair of preserving his station, and was at length, in 1742, constrained to resign.

‘ It is asserted that the minister would have sooner retired, if the state of the nation and of parties had not rendered his continuance in power necessary for the arrangement of a new administration, and for preserving the tranquillity of the country; and that he continued in office solely in compliance with the wishes of his friends. The papers which have been committed to my inspection, and the undoubted information which I have received, enable me to contradict this assertion. He retired unwillingly and slowly: no shipwrecked pilot ever clung to the rudder of a sinking vessel with greater pertinacity than he did to the helm of state, and he did not relinquish his post until he was driven from it by the desertion of his followers and the clamours of the public. Speaker Onslow, who knew him well, declared that he reluctantly quitted his station; and if any doubt still remains, we have the testimony of the minister. “ I must inform you,” he observes in a letter to the duke of Devonshire, “ that the panic was so great among, what shall I call them, my own friends, that they all declared that my retiring was become absolutely necessary, as the only means to carry on the public business with honour and success.”

‘ It has been also asserted with no less confidence, that the king himself was become weary of a minister, who had so long directed his affairs, who had so often opposed and obstructed his inclination for war, and who was still endeavouring to remove every obstacle which impeded the return of peace. But the same documents enable me to adduce an honourable testimony of the good faith and firmness of George the Second. Although the asperities which time and vexation occasioned in both their tempers, produced a momentary dissatisfaction, yet the king had contracted, by long habit and experience of his capacity for business, a high regard and esteem for his long-tried counsellor. In vain the earl of Wilmington and the duke of Dorset had enforced the necessity of his removal, the resolution of the king was unshaken, and he did not con-

sent to his resignation until the minister himself made it his express desire.

‘ The interview when he took leave of the king was highly affecting. On kneeling down to kiss his hand, the king burst into tears, and the ex-minister was so moved with that instance of regard, that he continued for some time in that posture; and the king was so touched, that he was unable to raise him from the ground. When he at length rose, the king testified his regret for the loss of so faithful a counsellor, expressed his gratitude for his long services, and his hopes of receiving advice on important occasions.’ Vol. i. p. 695.

After his retreat from the helm, he triumphed over those who wished to substantiate heavy charges against him; but he did not enjoy many years of retirement; for he died in the spring of the year 1745.

His character is fully given by Mr. Coxe; but it will be sufficient to exhibit some *traits* of it.

‘ His eloquence was plain, perspicuous, forcible, and manly, not courting, yet not always avoiding metaphorical, ornamental, and classical allusions; though addressed to the reason more than to the feelings, yet on some occasions it was highly animated and impassioned. No debater was ever more happy in quickness of apprehension, sharpness of reply, and in turning the arguments of his assailants against themselves.

‘ The tone of his voice was pleasing and melodious; his pronunciation distinct and audible, though he never entirely lost the provincial accent. His style, though by no means elegant, often deficient in taste, and sometimes bordering on vulgarity, was highly nervous and animated, persuasive and plausible.’ Vol. i. p. 749.

‘ Good temper and equanimity were his leading characteristics, and the placability imprinted on his countenance was not belied by his conduct. Of this disposition, his generous rival, Pulteney, thought so highly, that in a conversation with Johnson, he said, “ Sir Robert was of a temper so calm and equal, and so hard to be provoked, that he was very sure he never felt the bitterest invectives against him for half an hour.”

‘ His deportment was manly and decisive, yet affable and condescending; he was easy of access; his manner of bestowing a favour heightened the obligation; and his manner of declining was so gracious that few persons went out of his company discontented.’ Vol. i. p. 756.

‘ His conversation was sprightly, animated, and facetious, yet occasionally coarse and vulgar, and too often licentious to an unpardonable degree.

‘ In company with women he assumed an air of gallantry, which



even in his younger days was ill-suited to his manner and character, but in his latter years was totally incompatible with his age and figure. He affected in his conversation with the sex a trifling levity; but his gaiety was rough and boisterous, his wit too often coarse and licentious.' Vol. i. p. 756.

' He was, from his early youth, fond of the diversions of the field, and retained this taste till prevented by the infirmities of age. He was accustomed to hunt in Richmond park with a pack of beagles. On receiving a packet of letters he usually opened that from his game-keeper first; and he was fond of sitting for his picture in his sporting dress. He was, like chancellor Oxenstierna, a sound sleeper, and used to say, "that he put off his cares with his cloaths." Vol. i. p. 759.

The first volume terminates with a metrical (but not very poetical) panegyric upon this great minister, written by sir Charles Hanbury Williams.

(To be continued.)

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*The Morbid Anatomy of some of the most important Parts of the Human Body. By Matthew Baillie, M. D. F. R. S. &c. The second Edition, corrected and considerably enlarged. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Johnson. 1797.*

THE former edition of this work \* was a meagre collection of those deviations in the structure of the body, supposed to be produced by disease, which sometimes were accidental changes in appearance, sometimes varieties of form, within the limits of health. That the dissections might be rendered important and valuable, it was necessary to *premise* the symptoms, trace them in the subsequent changes, and distinguish, in these, the cause from the effect. The deficiency of the symptoms we formerly noticed; and the remark may have occasioned the additions which we observe in this volume; but they are introduced with so little discrimination of their connection with anatomical appearances, that they do not greatly add to the value of the work. We may make another remark, which is, that, though Dr. Baillie speaks of having chiefly observed these morbid changes himself, many of them have been described by others; and we see little use in multiplying observations of the same kind, merely because they have occurred to ourselves.

As a specimen of the additions, we will select an account of the symptoms connected with the morbid appearances described in our survey of the first edition.

' When water is accumulated in the pericardium, the symptoms

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\* See our XIth Vol. New Arr. p. 372.

are found to resemble very much those belonging to hydrothorax, and have not been clearly distinguished from them by authors. These symptoms will be afterwards mentioned when we come to hydrothorax. It may perhaps serve as some imperfect ground of distinction between the two diseases, that the feeling of oppression is more accurately confined to the situation of the heart, and the heart is more disturbed in its functions, in dropsy of the pericardium, than in hydrothorax. It ought at the same time to be remarked, that the two diseases are often blended together, and where, of course, these grounds of distinction cannot be applied.

‘ The case of scrofulous tumours growing upon the inside of the pericardium, which we have described, was combined with tubercles of the lungs; and the person died with the common symptoms of pulmonary consumption. Nothing occurred which led to any suspicion of a disease in the pericardium. It seems to me reasonable to suppose, that when scrofulous tumours grow in the pericardium, there will hardly be any inconvenience felt while they are small. But when they enlarge very much in size, they will necessarily prevent the full dilatation of the heart, and disturb its functions. This, however, will probably be very difficult to be distinguished from the disturbance produced by other causes, which must in the same manner impede the free action of the heart; as, for instance, the accumulation of water in the pericardium.

‘ The symptoms produced by a want of secretion in the pericardium are at present unknown.’ p. 17.

No symptoms attending the cases of a mal-conformation of the heart are described, except the color cœruleus. But, in several cases of this kind, irregularity of pulse, an indistinct flutter on the least motion, and occasional faintness, are among the symptoms; and these, though not characteristic of any one organical disease of the heart, will, with the blue complexion, point out the existence of some defect which prevents the passage of the whole circulatory fluid through the lungs.

‘ When ossification of the pleura is of small extent, respiration cannot be affected by it; but when it is large it must produce difficulty of breathing, either by preventing the full expansion of the lungs, or the free motion of the ribs, according to its situation. Some instances are known of respiration being injured from this cause.’ p. 61.

We have transcribed this paragraph to show how loosely the symptoms are connected with the changes. No reason is assigned for distinguishing difficulty of respiration from this cause; and there can be little doubt, that, with an extensive ossification of the pleura, many other changes, which would impede respiration, also occur.

Other objections may be made to some of the additions.



There is not always an adhesion, in the *intus susceptio*, between the external gut and the part within it, so as to render a cure desperate. In three instances, we have seen that the usual structure could be without any violence restored, after death. Two instances of certain inflammation of the stomach we have seen, besides a doubtful one; but vomiting did not occur: this therefore is not a constant symptom. In the scirrhous colon or rectum, costiveness is not constant: a slight diarrhoea generally intervenes; and the relief is not felt from the latter, but from the regular stool. Our author erroneously affirms, that it is of little consequence to discriminate between the inflammation of the liver and the lower part of the lungs, as the practice is the same. Would he give the active purgatives in the latter, as in the former? Would he, in the inflammation of the liver, make it his sole aim to promote expectoration? The distinction, we know, is difficult; and, when either part is violently affected, a part of the neighbouring organ suffers, so that the diseases are often mixed. We have found this complication very dangerous. It constitutes the bilious peripneumony of the French authors; and we have not found any other plan so useful as that of giving purgatives more freely, than in common cases of peripneumony, and following the indications drawn from the *adjuvantia* and *lædientia*.

We are sorry that we cannot give our applause to Dr. Baillie's labours in this edition; but, when we observe a want of care and attention, it is our duty to animadvert upon the writer's negligence.

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*A Sketch of Modern France. In a Series of Letters to a Lady of Fashion. Written in the Years 1796 and 1797, during a Tour through France. By a Lady. Edited by C. L. Moody, LL. D. F. A. S. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.*

ACCOUNTS of the state of France, when written with a strict regard to veracity, claim the attention of the public. But, amidst the present distractions of party, perfect accuracy of statement cannot be expected; and the bias of the writer will appear, in different degrees, in every work in which politics are introduced.

Though there is frequent deception in a title-page and in a preface, we have no reason to doubt the assertion, that this work was composed from the journal of a lady who was really a traveller in France. The letters (says the editor) 'are simply the journal of an English lady,' who visited France with her husband, 'a military gentleman and a foreigner;' and, as they were written on the spur of the occa-

sion, and involved the mention of private as well as public affairs, they 'required some abridgment and correction to fit them for publication.'

When the vessel in which our traveller sailed from Dover had reached the French coast (in October, 1796), it was boarded by a party of soldiers and seamen; and it was not without difficulty that the captain could procure permission to enter the harbour, or the lady to disembark. Her account of Calais we shall only notice so far as it relates to the good fortune of that and the neighbouring towns, amidst the rage of revolutionary barbarity. This department (it is said) 'escaped, for the most part, if not entirely, the scenes of horror and blood' which disgraced Arras, Cambray, &c. through the 'judicious choice' of magistrates by the people. But Robespierre, if he had been unfavourably disposed towards the inhabitants of that department, might easily have introduced magistrates of his own complexion.

In her progress to Paris, the lady had many opportunities of detecting the falsehood of the reports which she had heard in England, respecting the great neglect of agriculture in France. 'On the contrary (she says), not an inch of ground is left unworked, and the plough literally visits the very brink of the hedges along the roads.'

On her arrival in the French metropolis, she was particularly eager to visit the Luxembourg palace, the seat of the directory. Workmen of all descriptions were then employed in repairing and embellishing that magnificent edifice. Being present at a public audience there given, the writer has thus recounted some of the particulars which she observed.

'The petitioners are admitted within a kind of barrier which divides the room by the huissiers, (who are dressed in a costume truly Vandyke,) and there seat themselves on *fautenils* or arm-chairs ranged in a circular form, whilst the lookers-on are only permitted to stand in the background; but being introduced as a stranger, I had *l'honneur de la séance*, and was consequently admitted within the circle.

'In a few minutes the director entered the apartment, wearing the grand costume, also *à la Vandyke*, superb and extremely costly. As soon as he presented himself, the men uncovered, and a kind of silent respect seemed to diffuse itself round the room; which could scarcely have been carried to greater lengths in the old regime; the appearance of state and the number of the military dispersed in various parts of the apartments, may probably, in some degree, influence the minds of the people. Splendor and magnificence commonly produce this effect, and hence results the propriety of a magistrate wearing an appropriate dignified dress when in the execution of his high office. The impressions of respect



stamped on the mind of the vulgar by the same person, in scarlet robes trimmed with ermine, and in a brown coat, bob-wig, and dirty boots, would be very different.

' The petitioners draw near the director, and are presented by the principal huissier, one by one. He takes the petitions, reads a part, inquires into the cause of their grievances; and the answer, a week after, is found in an office erected for that purpose at the bottom of the grand staircase, called *l'office des renseignements*. As soon as the whole of the petitions have been received, one of the huissiers demands aloud, whether there be any person desirous of speaking to the director; when being answered in the negative, he retires, and the people disperse.

' One trait which gave me singular satisfaction, was the manner in which he attended to all, though more particularly to the sorrowful tale of a wretched-looking woman, who had two children with her, and one at the breast. This poor creature was the widow of a foldier, who had lately fallen for his country, and left her destitute. Twice he heard her melancholy story, and then bade her seat herself near the fire, until he could determine something in her favour. This I thought foreboded a good heart, and I was pleased with the man; but the appearance of the woman was, in one respect, truly risible, forming a singular contrast by her rags and tatters with the beautiful ornaments that surrounded her; for the apartment is precisely the same as when inhabited by monsieur, not any of the furniture having been removed.

' The hangings are of crimson damask, with a gold border, curtains, sofa, and *fauteuils* the same, with the addition of a deep gold fringe. The glasses are elegant; two of the doors have looking-glass in the pannels; a noble chandelier graces the middle of the room, while others of less size hang near the chimney; the whole displaying vast taste and elegance.' P. 157.

After a slight sketch of several public buildings, we are presented with an account of those in which the two councils deliberate, and also of a debate which took place at one of the meetings. In the council of five hundred,

' many of the speakers were so vehement in their oratory as frequently to occasion the greatest irregularity and confusion. Those, however, who are not engaged in the debates, display great indifference, conversing among themselves as if the affairs of their country were not under discussion, and no otherwise evince their sentiments or party, than by their yes or no.' P. 188.

It was not absolutely necessary for the lady to add the remark which follows, as the point to which it relates is not a matter of doubt.

' Here, as in other great assemblies, the real business seems to

be transacted by a few, and the rest are only present to sanction measures by their acquiescence.' P. 189.

Our traveller speaks favourably of the state of the arts at Paris.

'In exploring the Louvre, we paid a visit to the Museum National des Arts, which is only open for a stated time, similar to the exhibition at Somerset House. This museum is singularly worth seeing, and occupies a vast number of rooms, all in the palace; and which, from the judicious arrangement of the pictures, &c. display the artists' performances to the greatest advantage. Here we found a vast concourse of people, the admission being gratis; and seeing others go in, we naturally followed the current. We were pleased with several of the portraits, which appear to have been executed by capital masters, though we did not see any of the productions of the great David. We were rather surprised at finding at the present moment such a number of excellent performances, both in painting, drawing, and sculpture; yet it must be acknowledged, strange as it may seem, that whatever has merit or excellence, whether in literature or arts, still meets with amateurs in this great city.' P. 200.

We cannot follow the lady in her whole survey of Paris; but shall only add, that she found the inhabitants as gay, lively, and dissipated, as former visitants had described them. When she had arrived at Montereau in her way to Dijon, she was alarmed at a report that a Jacobin had *denounced* the town as being full of aristocrats: but the disturbance which arose on that ground was soon quelled. With an account of her progress she mingles the following observations on the French character.

'I have remarked, that the ideas and habits of the French, as may indeed naturally be supposed, partake more of the old than of the new regime. What are the charms and merits of a republican or democratic government I cannot pretend to say; but this I clearly perceive, even from the superficial view I have taken of the French people, that they are fighting and labouring to establish a system that is ill adapted to their present character.

'I shall be told, perhaps, that their character will change; this, however, must be a work of time. Nations, when they take a particular stamp or impression, lose it but slowly. The features of the French character are strong; and though I will not say that it is impossible for their present system, if it continue, to obliterate them, I must conceive it to be a more arduous and tedious task than is generally supposed. England, if I am not mistaken, was nearly twice as long under a republic as France has been, but this period was insufficient to wear away her predilection for monarchy,



and to induce her to prefer presbyterianism to the ancient forms of the established church.

‘ The present governors of France refuse to establish religion, but they cannot make the people admire the temple of reason.— They may discountenance priests, but the people are still fond of going *à la messe*. Habit and prejudice stand out a long time against political and religious innovators. It is easier to decree a republic than to suit such a people as the French are to it.

‘ People in all countries are in a great measure the creatures of political and religious institutions; and it is highly probable that, should the French republic be able to maintain its ground, the inhabitants of this country will by degrees undergo a great change both in their sentiments and manners. These, however, I observe, are not yet republicanised; and while so much ignorance, superstition, and profligacy prevail, I cannot allow the republic to be established.’ p. 315.

With Dijon she was greatly pleased, being inclined to believe that few places of residence are more agreeable. Here she met with a commissary from La Vendée, who accused the English, not wholly without reason, of improper conduct towards the inhabitants of that part of France.

“ I am’ (said he) ‘ a true friend to liberty, a lover of order, and an admirer of England, and have at this moment some of my family there; yet I repeat, that the English have much to answer for, and are in great part the cause of our misery:—

“ First, in not having kept their word to my unfortunate countrymen who confided in them, in the different attacks made by the latter towards the re-establishment of royalty:—Secondly, for having given confidence and authority to individuals, who, from want of talents and character, were unworthy of the enterprises entrusted to their care:—And finally, in having continually instigated us one against the other, without even venturing any of their own troops—Oh gracious God!” said he, beating his forehead, and hastily walking up and down the room, “ what could I call it?—but no,” added he recollecting himself, “ that cannot be.—Pardon my warmth; we have all so cruelly suffered by such horrid manœuvres, that the Vendéans are now no longer dupes; they are sensible they have been deceived; and I would by no means recommend to you to cross that country at present, lest some mishap might befall you, for depend on it they are bitter enemies to the English.” p. 334.

From Burgundy our tourist hastened into Switzerland, and thence into Savoy. The easy conquest of this duchy by the French she chiefly attributes to the tyranny exercised over the Savoyards by officers who abused the weakness of his Sardinian majesty. As the people were thus insulted and harassed,

it could not be expected that they would act with spirit against the invaders of their country.

‘ No wonder then, if’ (in the very incorrect language of the editor) ‘ the Savoyards, who, though never liking the French, and noted for attachment to their sovereign, were, in their own defence, obliged, as it were, to join the former when they entered this country.

‘ Yet we are assured they had not the most distant idea, at that time, of uniting themselves to the French republic; so far from it, that the members of the senate, syndics, and, in fine, the whole corps of magistracy, formed for themselves a kind of constitution, which they presented to Montesquieu, who received it with much apparent satisfaction, and in return, promised them protection and assistance. Of these magistrates the people speak highly, attributing to them the tranquillity of Savoy, and the few horrors committed in it, compared with other parts of France, during the time of Robespierre and his party. Even at this moment’ [Feb. 10, 1797] ‘ this department may be regarded as one where justice is tolerably administered, and a considerable share of humanity displayed.’  
P. 450.

Entering Dauphiné from Savoy, the lady visited Grenoble, which had felt little of the revolutionary violence. As she approached Lyons, her ‘ imagination employed itself in painful anticipation’ of the uneasy sensations which the view of the ruined parts of the town would produce.

‘ Where we perceived the most tremendous effects of the reign of terror was on the ci-devant beautiful place Belle Cour, where several of the noble mansions, that once enriched that square, are now a heap of ruins, as well as the charming promenade, by which it was heretofore embellished, and which now scarcely exists. The quays of the Saone display the same Vandal-like fury; and the churches and convents, that were on that spot, are now in ruins. We have been informed, that on these quays, and on la place Belle-Cour the greatest cruelties were committed:—cruelties, the bare recital of which must make one shudder, exercised in cold blood against those who were suspected of royalism or federalism: for here, when the guillotine could not dispatch with sufficient expedition, guns loaded with grape-shot were employed against miserable victims tied together in rows, who fell by hundreds, and whose blood flowed like water into the Saone.’ P. 477.

The volume terminates with general remarks, referring to the probability of a subversion of the republican government, to the revival of superstition among the people, the small encouragement given to the arts and sciences, the neglect of commerce, and the disorder of the finances.



The narrative sometimes exhibits an agreeable vivacity; and many parts of the volume will amuse the reader; but the information is not very important; nor do we highly approve the lady's choice of an editor, even though he adds to his name LL. D. and F. A. S.

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*Essays on the Microscope; containing a practical Description of the most improved Microscopes: a general History of Insects, their Transformations, peculiar Habits, and Economy: an Account of the various Species, and singular Properties, of the Hydræ and Vorticellæ: a Description of three Hundred and eighty-three Animalcula: with a concise Catalogue of interesting Objects: a View of the Organization of Timber, and the Configuration of Salts, when under the Microscope. Illustrated with Thirty-two Folio Plates. By the late George Adams, Mathematical Instrument Maker to his Majesty, &c. The second Edition, with considerable Additions and Improvements, by Frederick Kanmacher, F. L. S. 4to. 1l. 8s. Boards. Jones. 1798.*

IN this edition \* are some notes which are not very important, and some additions which complete the subject. These are—

- ‘Accounts of the latest improvements which have been made in the construction of microscopes, particularly the lucernal.
- ‘A description of the glass, pearl, &c. micrometers, as made by Mr. Coventry, and others.
- ‘An arrangement and description of minute and rare shells.
- ‘A descriptive list of a variety of vegetable seeds.
- ‘Instructions for collecting and preserving insects, together with directions for forming a cabinet.
- ‘A copious list of objects for the microscope.
- ‘A list of Mr. Custance's fine vegetable cuttings.
- ‘With respect to the plates, three new engravings are introduced, viz.
  - ‘Plate IV. Exhibiting the most improved compound microscopes, with their apparatus.
  - ‘Plate XIV. Microscopical figures of minute and rare shells.
  - ‘Plate XV. ————— a variety of vegetable seeds.’ P. xix.

Among the additions relative to the improvements of the microscope, we find a description of those which were made on Mr. Adams's lucernal microscope, chiefly by Mr. Jones,

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\* For an account of the former edition, see our LXVth volume, p. 40.

and Dr. Prince, of Salem, in North-America. Mr. Jones's peculiar construction of the compound or double microscope, and some other alterations in former instruments, are subjoined by the editor.

The minute shells, described by M. Kanmacher, are those which were noticed in our LVIIIth volume\*: the vegetable seeds are those observed by Dr. Parsons.

The instructions for collecting and preserving insects are full and accurate. Some of the particulars respecting the natural history and manners of different insects are very interesting. From this part we shall extract a passage concerning silk-worms.

'The learned Dr. Bellardi, foreign member of the Linnean Society, &c. a few years since discovered a new method of feeding silk-worms, when they are hatched before the mulberry-trees have produced leaves, or when the tender branches are destroyed by frost: how far this practice may be successfully applied in other instances, seems as yet undetermined; though from some recent experiments, it appears possible that caterpillars may be thus fed in backward seasons. This method consists in giving the caterpillar the dried leaves of their accustomed food reduced to powder, and gently moistened with water; a thin coating of which must be placed round the young worms, who will immediately begin to feed upon it. The doctor informs us that the caterpillars of the silk-worm prefer it to any other food, and devour it with the utmost avidity. The leaves should be gathered towards the close of the autumn, before the frost commences, in dry weather, and when the heat is greatest; they must be dried in the sun by spreading them upon large cloths, and after being reduced into powder, laid up in a dry place. Donovan says, that the experiment has been tried with several caterpillars which were nearly full fed on the leaves of thorns and oaks thus prepared, and that they were observed to eat it when no other food was given, but he cannot determine how far they may thrive if fed on that aliment only.' p. 672.

With regard to the insect which is known in England by the name of the death-watch, there are some doubts among naturalists.

'Linnæus thus notices it; "frequens in domibus, invisum vestibis, herbariis, insectorum museis. Fœmina horologii instar pulsatoria in ligneis festucis." Syst. Nat. p. 1015. No. 2. Geoffroy, however, says he is confident that it is not from this insect, but from the *dermestes domesticus*, (Syst. Nat. p. 563, No. 12,) which makes the circular holes in furniture, that the ticking noise proceeds. Hist. des Insectes, Tom. I. p. 111. & Tom. II. p. 602. Neither of these are

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\* Page 315.—The trivial names are now added.



larger than the *pediculus humanus*. Again, on the respectable authority of Dr. Shaw, we are assured, that the insect properly called the death watch is a coleopterous insect of the genus *ptinus*, Syft. Nar. p. 565. The doctor says, "it is chiefly in the advanced state of the spring that this alarming little insect commences its sound—the prevailing number of distinct strokes is from seven to nine or eleven—these are given in pretty quick succession, and are repeated at uncertain intervals; and in old houses, where the insects are numerous, may be heard almost every hour of the day, especially if the weather be warm. The sound exactly resembles that which may be made by beating moderately hard with the nail on a table—It is about a quarter of an inch in length." This very able naturalist has distinguished the insect by the name of *ptinus fatidicus*, the beating *ptinus*, and supposes it to be the same with the *dermestes tessellatus* of Fabricius, and the *ptinus pulsator* of Gmelin. He also cautions us "not to confound this insect, which is the real death-watch of the vulgar, emphatically so called, with another insect, which makes a sound like the ticking of a watch, and which continues its sound for a long time without intermission: it belongs to a totally different tribe from the death-watch, and is the *termes pulsatorium* of Linnæus." Every one will agree with the doctor in his remark, that, "it is a very singular circumstance that an animal so common should not be more universally known." Nat. Misc. vol. ii. p. 688.

This edition may be recommended as much more correct and complete than the former.

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*Travels in Europe, Africa, and Asia, performed between the Years 1770 and 1779. By Charles Peter Thunberg, M.D. (Continued from Vol. XXII. p. 530.)*

A Nation, so remarkable as the Japanese, could not long exist without notice, when commerce or enterprise carried travellers to the remotest parts of the east. A country, inaccessible to foreigners, and presenting an impenetrable frontier to its own inhabitants, must have excited curiosity, and have given occasion for numerous fables; for those who cannot procure real information, are often willing to supply amusement from their own resources. The patient and industrious Kœmpfer was one of the first who had an opportunity of knowing the truth; and he was not anxious to embellish it; equally void of imagination and invention, he delivered a plain unvarnished tale. The present author is equally faithful and more pleasing; yet his narrative sometimes wants the little ornaments of style, and the adventitious polish of taste.

Japan is governed by laws which in general are equitable;

and the public functions are exercised with equal steadiness and impartiality. The law is supreme; and the emperor is only the first magistrate, to administer laws which he is equally bound to observe. War is almost unknown: religions, though various, inspire no animosity, and occasion no disputes. Mutual kindness and benevolence reign in every society. Foreign commerce is under many restrictions; and only the Dutch and the Chinese are allowed to trade with the inhabitants.

It was in August, 1775, that the ship in which M. Thunberg sailed arrived in the harbour of Nagasaki. The town of that name

' is one of the five towns called imperial; and, on account of its foreign commerce, is one of the greatest commercial towns in the empire. It belongs separately to the secular emperor; the revenues flow into his treasury, and a governor commands in his name.' Vol. iii. p. 38.

' This town is in its situation very much exposed; it has neither citadel, walls, nor fosse, but it has crooked streets, and a few canals dug for the purpose of carrying off the water from the surrounding mountains, which reach quite to the harbour. Before the time of the Portuguese it was only a village; but has since, by the emigrations that have been made thither on account of commerce, been extended to its present size. There are a great number of temples, and the prettiest spots imaginable on the heights surrounding the town. At each end of the streets there is a wooden gate, which can be locked, and by this means all communication with other streets cut off. At night they are always locked. In each street, which is seldom more than thirty or forty fathoms in length, and contains about the same number of houses, there is always an officer appointed to superintend and inspect it; and in like manner in each street there is a house, in which an apparatus is kept for the prevention of fire. The houses are scarcely ever two stories high, and when they are, the upper story is generally low. The town is governed by four burgomasters, who have under them a sufficient number of (*ottonas*) attendants of different ranks and degrees, by which means good order and security is procured, and maintained in the best and most ample manner.' Vol. iii. p. 80.

In the journey of the Dutch ambassador to Jedo, M. Thunberg attended him in the capacity of physician.

' How much soever the Europeans are despised in their factory, and in however contemptible a light the Japanese are used to consider all foreigners, yet it is not more surprising than true, that, in the course of our journey to and from the court, we were every



where received not only with the greatest politeness and attention, but with the same respect and esteem as is shewn to the princes of the country, when they make their journies to the imperial court. When we arrived at the borders of a province, we were always met by an officer, sent by the lord of it, who not only offered us, in the name of his employer, every assistance that might be required with respect to people, horses, vessels, &c. but also accompanied us to the next frontiers, where he took his leave of us, and was relieved by another. The lower class of people, also, showed us the same tokens of veneration and respect, as to princes; bowing with their foreheads down to the ground, and even at times turning their backs to us, to signify, that they consider us in so high a light, that, in their extreme insignificance, they are unworthy of beholding us.' Vol. iii. p. 106.

While Jedo is the seat of the kubo, or secular sovereign of Japan, Miaco is that of the dairi, or spiritual emperor. The latter town, at which our travellers stopped in their way to Jedo,

'is not only the oldest capital, but also the largest commercial town in the empire, an advantage, for which it is indebted to its central situation. It stands on a level plain of about four leagues in length, and half a league in breadth. Here are established the greatest number, and, at the same time, the best of workmen, manufacturers, and artists, as also the most capital merchants, so that almost every thing that one can wish or desire is to be purchased here: velvets and silks wove with gold and silver, wrought metals and manufactures in gold, silver, and copper; likewise, sowas, clothes, and the best of weapons. The celebrated Japanese copper, after being roasted and smelted at the smelting-house, is refined and manufactured here. All the coin too is struck here and stamped. And as at the dairi's court all kinds of literature are encouraged and supported, as at a royal academy, therefore all books that are published, are printed here.' Vol. iii. p. 140.

The dairi was formerly the sole emperor of Japan; but, in 1142, the chief military commander began to share the government with him; and, in 1585, an ambitious general, named Taiko Samma, deprived the dairi of all power except that of a high priest; in which capacity, however, he receives such honours as almost approach to adoration.

When the party reached Jedo, the ambassador was introduced to the kubo; but he could not be said to have an audience, as he merely humbled himself before the emperor, and was then dismissed. That part of Jedo in which the kubo resides,

'is surrounded by fosses and stone walls, and separated by draw-bridges. It forms a considerable town of itself, and is said to be

five leagues in circumference. This comprises the emperor's private palace, as also that of the hereditary prince, each of which were kept separate by wide fosses, stone walls, gates, and other bulwarks. In the outermost citadel, which was the largest of all, were large and handsome covered streets, and great houses, which belonged to the princes of the country, the privy counsellors, and other officers of state. Their numerous families, who were obliged likewise to remain at the court the whole year throughout, were also lodged here.' Vol. iii. p. 189.

Of some visits made by M. Thunberg and his companions, we have this account :

' We were obliged to pay visits to all the privy counsellors, as well to the six ordinary, as to the six extraordinary, at each of their respective houses. And as these gentlemen were not yet returned from court, we were received in the most polite manner by their deputies, and exhibited to the view of their ladies and children: Each visit lasted half an hour; and we were, for the most part, so placed in a large room, that we could be viewed on all sides through thin curtains, without having the good fortune to get a sight of these court beauties, excepting at one place, where they made so free, as not only to take away the curtain, but also desired us to advance nearer. In general we were received by two gentlemen in office, and at every place treated with green tea, the apparatus for smoking, and pastry, which was set before each of us separately on small tables. We drank sometimes a cup of the boiled tea, but did not touch the tobacco, and the pastry was taken home through the prudent care of our interpreters.

' On this occasion I shall never forget the delightful prospect we had during these visits, from an eminence that commanded a view of the whole of this large and extensive town, which the Japanese affirm to be twenty-one leagues, or as many hours' walk, in circumference.' Vol. iii. p. 193.

With regard to the capital, he adds, that

' it is very populous, on account of the infinite number of strangers who flock to it from all parts of the country. Every family, it is true, has its own house, and the houses are only one, or at most two, stories high; but, yet, many individuals live crowded together in one and the same house. Towards the street there are always either work-shops, or ordinary sale-shops. These are for the most part covered with a cloth, hanging down before them, at least in part, so that no one can easily see from the street what the people are at work upon. But in the sale-shops are seen patterns of almost every thing. The streets, especially the principal ones, through which we passed, were very long and broad, frequently from eighty to a hundred feet in breadth.' Vol. iii. p. 205.



Among other particulars contained in the third volume, we meet with the following information. The principal island is in general mountainous; the shores are rocky, and the harbours shallow. The soil is thin, even in the valleys, consisting of clay and sand, with little mould; but, in many places, the fertility is considerable. The weather is very variable, the thermometer rising to 98°, and sinking to 35° of Fahrenheit. Tempests and hurricanes are common, and earthquakes are not infrequent. The people are of the middle size, and have a yellowish complexion, sometimes bordering on brown, and sometimes on white. Their eyes are small and sunken, their noses thick and short, and their heads large. They are far from being deficient in capacity; but, though literature is cultivated by many of them, they do not excel in the sciences. They are brave and resolute, but haughty and arrogant. They are sober, industrious, and upright; but mistrustful and unforgiving.

In the fourth volume, we find an ulterior account of Japanese institutions and customs. Their general religion is paganism. They have an obscure idea of one supreme deity; but the numerous inferior divinities are the usual objects of their worship, as they think the Almighty too exalted to require their homage. This is the opinion of the Sinto sect, the earliest in the country. From the coast of Coromandel, they have received the doctrine of Budſdo; and the moral system of Confucius has been since added. These are the leading sects; but subordinate ones are numerous.

The kubo is assisted in the government by six privy counsellors; and, under him, the provinces are respectively ruled by princes, whom he may dismiss or even punish capitally if they abuse their power. His court is splendid, as is also that of the dairi, who alone can confer titles of honour.

Rice is the chief food of the Japanese; but they also take a great variety of animal food. Their principal, if not their only, liquors are tea and rice-beer. Their marriages are attended with little pomp or ceremony: polygamy is not allowed; and fornication is very prevalent.

With the Japanese theatrical amusements, our grave author was not highly delighted.

‘Plays I had an opportunity of seeing acted several times. The spectators sit in houses of different dimensions upon benches; facing them, upon an elevated, but small and narrow place, stands the theatre itself, upon which seldom more than one or two actors perform at a time. These are always dressed in a very singular manner, according as their own taste and fancy suggest, inſomuch that a stranger would be apt to believe, that they exhibited themselves not to entertain but to frighten the audience.

Their gestures, as well as their dress, are strangely uncouth and extravagant, and consist in artificial contortions of the body, which it must have cost them much trouble to learn and perform. In general they represent some heroic exploit or love story of their idols and heroes which are frequently composed in verse, and are sometimes accompanied with music. A curtain may, it is true, be let fall between the actors and the spectators, and some necessary pieces be brought forward upon the theatre; but in other respects, these small theatres have no machinery nor decorations, which can entitle them to be put in comparison with those of Europe. I did not observe that public spectacles contributed any more in this country than in other places, to reform the manners of the people; as the design of them appears to be the same here as in other parts of the world, and as they tend rather to amuse the idle frivolity of mankind with jugglers' tricks, than to amend the heart, rather to fill the pockets of the actors, than to be of any real benefit to the spectators.' Vol. iv. p. 49.

Of the state of the sciences, arts, &c, among the Japanese, he says,

'Astronomy is in great favour and repute; notwithstanding which they are unable, without the assistance of the Chinese and Dutch almanacs, to compose a perfect calendar, or to compute to minutes and seconds an eclipse of the sun or moon. Medicine neither has attained, nor is it likely that it ever will attain to any degree of eminence. With anatomy they are totally unacquainted, and their knowledge of diseases is very imperfect, involved in error, and frequently in fable: botany and the knowledge of remedies, constitute the whole of their medical knowledge. Of natural philosophy and chemistry, the Japanese have little more idea than what they have lately learned from the physicians of Europe.' Vol. iv. p. 55.

'The art of printing is unquestionably very ancient in this country; but they always used, and still continue to use plates for this purpose, without having any knowledge of moveable types. They print upon one side of the paper only, on account of its thinness, as otherwise the ink would sink through. They have even a knowledge of engraving, although in the art of drawing they remain vastly inferior to the Europeans.' Vol. iv. p. 57.

'Poetry is a favourite study with this nation, who employ it to perpetuate the memory of their gods, heroes, and celebrated men. Music is likewise held in high estimation, but hitherto they have neither been able to bring their musical instruments to any degree of perfection, nor yet have they made any progress in the science of harmony. At festivals, and on other grand occasions, they make use of drums, fifes, stringed instruments, bells, horse-bells, and other musical instruments.' Vol. iv. p. 58.



' Arts and manufactures are carried on in every part of the country, and some of them are brought to such a degree of perfection, as even to surpass those of Europe: whilst some, on the other hand, fall short of European excellence. They work extremely well in iron and copper, and their silk and cotton manufactures equal, and sometimes even excel, the productions of other eastern countries. Their lacquering in wood, especially their ancient workmanship, surpasses every attempt which has been made in this department by other nations. They work likewise with great skill in fowas, which is a mixture of gold and copper, which they understand how to colour blue or black with their touse, or ink, by a method hitherto unknown to us.' Vol. iv. p. 59.

From Japan M. Thunberg returned to the island of Java, and landed in the beginning of 1777 at Batavia. Having examined various parts of Java, he proceeded to Ceylon. The growth and management of cinnamon are accurately described, as are also the precious stones of the island; but, for these particulars, and the account of the voyage from Ceylon to the Cape of Good Hope, thence to Holland and Great-Britain, and of the author's return to Sweden, we must refer our readers to the work itself. The volumes are certainly interesting; and the public may depend on the veracity of the traveller.

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*A Treatise on Poverty, its Consequences, and the Remedy. By William Sabatier, Esq. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Stockdale. 1797.*

**POVERTY** is one of those evils which throw a frequent gloom over the brilliant advantages of civil society; and, for the eradication of it, much force of reasoning, and practical benevolence, have hitherto been employed in vain.

The natural inequality of mankind is an axiom which theoretic pertinacity alone will dispute; and one of the various consequences of this inequality is, that, in civilised communities, multitudes of men must be *comparatively* poor. It is, however, indispensably characteristic of a free and happy government, that employment should be provided for the active, that incapacity for labour should not induce a total privation of comfort, and that industry should not be suffered to toil merely for the purpose of allaying the cravings of hunger. It is much to be regretted that numerous legislative provisions, charity profusely liberal, and the multiplied departments of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, have not fully secured these desirable objects in our own country, but that so great a number of its inhabitants should endure the sharpest and most degrading evils of poverty.

To investigate the source of those evils, and to suggest the means of removing or palliating them, are the objects of this publication. The author is a man of observation and sagacity. He enumerates various causes by which persons are reduced to poverty, and thus mentions some of those which, in his opinion, 'prevent their rising above it.'

'The poor are too apt to fancy that their humble situations proceed from the oppression of the rich, and this idea is encouraged by artful and designing people, who are continually on the watch for some of those contingencies which never fail to present themselves in time of war, or after a very long peace. But were the poor to spend no more than is necessary to support them in corporal health, the wages which they get for their services, and the money they earn from their trades, are in general amply sufficient to effect this, and to lay by in a very few years what is necessary to put them into such a line as would lead to opulence: for when we recollect that one penny a day amounts to 1*l.* 10*s.* 5*d.* a year, we must be sensible there are very few incapable of sparing something from their earnings. It must, however, be confessed, that taking the present state of the poor into consideration, the resolution necessary for accumulating such a saving is very great, and it will never be accomplished except promoted by a previous tuition. To this end the tontine scheme was put in practice, and it is certainly the most laudable and effectual institution of the kind that ever was thought of;—it is one other addition to promote the ability of rising to pecuniary independence, for there are many people who having once acquired a trifle beforehand, would be induced to go on, that now designedly spend every thing they get possession of. Tontines, however, are yet in their infancy, and at present exist only in some great cities: a caution is therefore necessary, not to suffer one to fail from mismanagement or fraud; for, should that ever be the case, there will be a general stop from one end of the kingdom to the other. This irresolution to save, and not the want of sufficient wages, is a radical cause of a continuance in poverty; else whence is it, that, in London at least, so many of the labouring people can afford to be absent from their work on Monday? It is a saying, that "Saint Monday is the greatest vagabond in the kalendar." The usual wages of a porter and a common labourer are twelve shillings a week \*, and there are many who are, in a general way only, sober and industrious, that contrive to support a wife and two children decently and in health by their own wages, and by some trifle besides, which is earned by the former. A man, therefore, possessed of a trade, and who gets a guinea or twenty-five shillings a week, can blame himself only if he does not rise above dependence.

'Another cause is buying unprofitable food, and the misma-

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\* Since the commencement of the war, a porter's wages have risen to fourteen shillings a week.'



nagement of it afterwards;—tea, with bread and butter, is a very improper breakfast for any person who works hard. So are cheese and porter; the former of these has in it very little nourishment, and the latter is too costly.

‘ Every thing that will contribute to save only one penny a day in a poor family should be considered an object of importance; and a more easy means is not to be found, than baking a sort of bread which is as wholesome as any other, and yet cheaper. This is a very common practice in America; but experience has proved, that here, the gipsy under the hedge, or the beggars in the streets, would scorn it.

‘ Feeding pigs, cats, dogs, and birds, assist in keeping people poor: the first are intended for profit; but as the poor never calculate their expenses, so they never know the real worth of any thing. A pig, if it runs about, consumes time in looking for it; it frequently gets into the pound; it eats up the scraps of the family where there should be none; it occasions the boiling of victuals simply for the sake of the pot-liquor, and that is the mode of dressing food which retains in it the least nourishment of any other; then this stunted, half-starved creature must be fatted, and will, in the end, cost more than three times the value of the meat. As to the other animals, people never pretend to keep them for profit, what they consume is evidently a total loss.

‘ The habit which poor people are in of giving their children money to buy fruit and tarts, if frequent, becomes a bad practice; if now and then only, and for ripe fruit, it is of service to them: at any rate it assists to increase expenses, and should, therefore, be avoided, where industry and management are to be the steps to fortune. For there can be no doubt, that, in Great Britain at least, any one possessed of mental and bodily health, has the ability, by saving and perseverance, to arrive at a comfortable independence from the lowest indigence. Numberless are the instances which might be brought in proof. We have seen the eldest son of a peer, who possessed every advantage which a good education, a fine person, and elegant manners could give him, by a course of the utmost profligacy and extravagance, in want of bread to eat, and driven at length to the necessity of enlisting as a common soldier. And we have also known a man, whose origin was so low as to be an errand-boy, become governor of the bank of England, alderman, sheriff, lord mayor, and member of parliament for the city of London.’ p. 29.

Good sense appears in a great part of this quotation; but we differ from Mr. Sabatier in some points. In mentioning cheese, he makes no distinction between the volatile and acrid sort usually preferred by the higher classes, and that which is generally consumed by the poor: the latter is saponaceous, and possesses considerable nutritive properties, as it constitutes, with bread, the chief food of a great number of persons, daily occupied

in very laborious employments. With respect to porter, we are much surprised, and in some degree shocked, that a liquor which by its invigorating quality makes some compensation to the labouring poor for their scantiness of animal food, and which is so low in price comparatively with various kinds of beverage constantly used by the other classes of society, should, even by the strictest political œconomist, be thought *too costly*!

In considering the ‘Consequences of Poverty,’ the writer’s view is naturally directed to the numerous crimes by which the laws and the peace of society are violated. The following remarks are pertinent and just.

‘Those temptations to evil, which are too thickly sown throughout this kingdom, are causes of crimes. Unfortunately, some of them are intimately interwoven with the exigencies of the state, and others are become, from immemorial custom, and ancient tenure, the absolute property of individuals.—The exigencies of government are, in some measure, relieved by the sale of spirits, and lottery tickets; the evils of which are so numerous and obvious, and so much has been said, and written, in vain, that the bare mention of them in this place is sufficient. No one that has lived in the neighbourhood of a forest, but must have remarked the ill effects which an unfenced property has on the poorer sort of people. Their savage manners and debauched morals, are a proof of this assertion. It is wonderful, how much time they will lose in stealing the wood, in hunting up a half-starved hog, or cow, in the day; and in killing the game at night. Indeed, where there is much game, the crime of stealing and plundering any thing else, is from infancy rendered perfectly familiar. It is impossible that a child can be continually exercised in an unlawful act, and see his parents so employed, without becoming ever after indelibly addicted to the commission of whatever suits his immediate purpose. The same causes will produce the same effects in one country as in another; and, having long been accustomed, at intervals, to see the manners, and to hear the conversation of those settlers in America, who inhabit the foot of the Allegany mountains, I have since been very much struck with the similarity of these, and the poorer class of inhabitants, in and about Epping Forest, although situated so near the metropolis. A human being, living in a savage state, has few wants; and, in the warmer regions, those wants are easily supplied;—on that account he possesses many virtues, which are unknown to him who is in a state half-way between the Indian and those who live in a perfectly civilized society: for, with all that is most disgusting in the former, the wants of the latter make him more selfish and vindictive.

‘Smuggling, certainly a crime in itself, is also the mother of others. When a number of men get together, ready to commit an act that is contrary to the laws, and for which they are liable to



be punished, being in continual apprehension of detection, and resolute to defend the property, in which they are interested, they are apt to fortify their courage by strong liquors, and by herding together become rude and profligate in their manners; and addict themselves to drinking, gambling, cruelty, and swearing; until, by degrees, like pirates, their lives being in continual danger, they acquire nearly the same dispositions and brutish feelings. When a gang is broke up, those who are not seamen, from long disuse of orderly labour, become wreckers; or adopt some other mode of life, which is but little more criminal than the former, and end their lives by the common hangman.' P. 75.

Other causes of popular depravity are enumerated, and means of reform are suggested. Education, as connected with the views of the author, is copiously treated. Among many good hints on this important subject, he introduces some general principles from Helvetius, of whose philosophy a greater use has been made in the course of this treatise, than seems consistent with the strong repugnance professed by Mr. Sabatier to the doctrines of modern reformers. This gentleman affords an instance of the danger of keeping *loose company* on any occasion; for we discern, in several passages of his work where religion is mentioned, an inclination to consider it more as an engine of state, than as an incentive to the ardent belief and hope of men.

The system of criminal punishment in this country is reprobated by our author, as at once sanguinary and inefficacious. He cites Beccaria in support of his reasoning against the frequency of capital punishment; and, in the following note, he describes his own feelings at one of those horrid spectacles by which the metropolis is so often deformed.

'The only execution I ever saw was in the end of the year 1793, and that was accidental. As I was passing one morning, earlier than usual, from Snow-hill to Newgate-street, just as I got in the middle of that broad part, at the corner of St. Sepulchre's church yard, I accidentally turned my eyes towards Newgate prison. I say, accidentally, for there was nothing extraordinary, except the railings, to attract my attention. I then saw a thing, like a black bag, dangling from a beam; for I was so much taken up with my own thoughts, and being accustomed to the bustle of London, that I was not immediately sensible what it was. When, however, I did recollect myself, the sight shocked me very much, and I hastened away as fast as possible; but I could not help remarking, that there was no unusual number of persons standing about, except near the gallows, and there as many perhaps as if two boys had been fighting. After I had got under that part of the wall which joins the prison to Newgate-street, and consequently out of view of the hateful sight, I stopped to look about me.

Close to where I stood sat a woman selling fruit, and a man cleaning shoes; I asked what crime the man was hanged for, but neither could inform me. All round, and as far as I could see, there was no other appearance, except the railing, but what may always be seen at that time in the morning. I particularly remarked several people passing by as I had done, without any other attention than a transient look. I sincerely believe, had it not been for the temporary rails, I should not have seen the execution at all. I had often heard of this indifference, but never could comprehend how it was possible that the lower sort of people could be so unconcerned at each other's misfortunes. I, at that time, concluded it proceeded from the frequency of the sight; a proof, at any rate, that the criminal laws stand in need of reform \*.' p. 182.

Other circumstances of criminal punishment, equally offensive to humanity and decency, are thus noticed.

' Whether death is inflicted by hanging or decapitation, provided it is instantaneous, it is immaterial both to the criminal and to the public: it is so also to him, whether he is afterwards drawn and quartered, burnt, dissected, hung in chains, buried in the highway or church-yard, but not so to the nation. To exhibit a scaffold, like shambles, for human flesh, is abhorrent to our nature, and excites resentment rather than fear. To string human carcasses, like moles or rats upon a stick, is very common upon the Thames and highways, and yet robberies are committed under, or within sight of them, almost every night; which proves the practice to be useless at least; and if so, it is very barbarous, and at any rate very disgusting.' p. 191.

We are informed by travellers of the filthy and shocking exhibitions of criminal *justice* among the Abyssinians, and are extremely sorry to recollect that similar *traits* of barbarity have polluted European countries. It is, however, proper to remark, that, from the refinement of the times, several of our author's objections are now groundless, though the gibbeting and dissecting of certain malefactors are still in use.

The following remark does more credit to the feelings than to the correctness of the author.

' It is wonderful that women alone are by our laws liable to be burnt alive; but as the practice in this particular amends the law, it is no further of consequence, except to show, that we can tram-

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\* Complaints of the frequency of capital punishment, and plans for eradicating the *seeds of vice*, are so often to be found in modern writers, that we think it is no more than a debt of justice to intimate that similar considerations have not escaped the attention of older English authors. It may be unnecessary to acquaint our readers that the *Utopia* of sir Thomas More contains many just and ingenious remarks on criminal punishments; but it is perhaps not generally known that the very learned ornament of British jurisprudence, lord Coke, in the Epilogue to his *Institute of the Criminal Law*, has treated the same subject with propriety; but we must refer the curious reader to the work in question, rather than quote the passage. REV.



ple on the laws when it suits our purpose, and likewise to exhibit the spirit of some former times. The men, having the power, inflicted a partially cruel punishment on that sex, who rather merited their compassion. It was a degree of inhumanity which the wildest native Indian would have blushed at.' P. 191.

Mr. Sabatier should have recollected, what doubtless will occur to most of his readers, that this odious distinction in the punishment of females was abolished by an act of the legislature in the thirtieth year of the reign of his present majesty.

As the manners of a people are considerably influenced by their legal institutions, we shall conclude our extracts with the author's summary of instances in which, according to his opinion, 'our present laws tend to promote crimes.'

- ' 1st, By disproportioned punishments.
- ' 2d, By fixing the same punishment to two different crimes, the greater of which has a tendency to conceal the lesser.
- ' 3d, By admitting of impunity; as in an unconditional pardon, or an exchange from death to transportation, which is often, to a man rendered desperate by distress, an enviable situation.
- ' 4th, By confinement before trial in idleness and bad company; the former tending to hardened profligacy, the latter to an escape.
- ' 5th, The expense of prosecution.
- ' 6th, By allowing legal passages for escape.
- ' 7th, By proscribing a man's character by visible dismemberment, public whipping, pillory, or the stocks.
- ' 8th, By legalizing, or rather by not prohibiting pawnbrokers, and other receivers.
- ' 9th, By want of attention to the morals of the poor.
- ' 10th, By permitting profligate characters to fill the religious ministry.
- ' 11th, By non-residence, and neglect of incumbents.
- ' 12th, By not affording to a poor or distressed man the means of earning a living.
- ' 13th, By a false economy in detecting crimes.
- ' 14th, By permitting mendicity.
- ' 15th, By suffering seditionists to escape punishment.
- ' 16th, By allowing temptations to lie in the way of poor people, as game, and wood in forests.
- ' 17th, By suffering the escape of fraudulent, extravagant, and speculative bankrupts.
- ' 18th, The sale of spirituous liquors, and lottery tickets.
- ' 19th, By laying high duties on foreign commodities; and thereby encouraging smuggling.' P. 240.

More particular remarks on many of the points here enumerated, occur in various parts of the treatise. In considering the means 'of affording employment to the industrious,' Mr.

Sabatier introduces many judicious reflections on the laws which relate to the poor, and on the condition of the British seamen. We have been particular in our notice of the present work, from the importance of the subjects of which it treats: the author professes a disregard for the *ornaments* of style; if however he be not a foreigner, he is reprehensible for using in many passages a carelessness of language, rather productive of obscurity than of perspicuity.

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*Lectures in Divinity, by John Hey, D. D. (Concluded from p. 294.)*

AFTER our animadversions on various parts of this work, we enter upon the more pleasing task of pointing out some passages which will place the author in a more agreeable light. He read his lectures in the same college of which Woolston was formerly a fellow; and, by expressing his disapprobation of the treatment which that unfortunate man received from his contemporaries, he implanted (we hope) better notions of toleration in his hearers.

‘ I am not ashamed to conclude with owning, that I feel more compassion, when I think of Woolston, than indignation; in his last works, he approached near to infidelity; but he always fancied he was refining the Christian system; his notions were a disorder in his intellects. He was a man of learning and probity; nay, of wit and humour, however misapplied. It would have reflected more honour upon our religion, and upon our civil government, to have committed him to the care of his relations and friends (for friends he had to the last, of the greatest eminence in the church), than to let him support himself in prison by the sale of his writings, and end his days in confinement.’ Vol. i. p. 195.

Those persons only who have indulged in the solitary contemplation of religion, will fully comprehend the excellence of the following passage.

‘ In a solitary, religious, contemplative life, there are not only punishments for intemperance, but also rewards for abstemiousness. So that every degree of abstemiousness seems to answer to a man in such a life, and to be productive of good. The body, though not robust, becomes free from disorders, supple, light, and unencumbered; not strong, but easily set in motion, and disposed to agility: and robust and strong enough for all purposes of a contemplative life. The mind is also active, and light; the sentiments become refined, polished, benevolent: the intellects penetrating, so that the investigation of truth becomes successful and pleasing—And a consciousness of not being refractory, but resigned to the situation of affairs, gives a serenity, and a mild complacency, which makes every thing wear a pleasing aspect.—This consciousness grows stronger, as the contemplative man gets a stronger sense of the sinful-



ness of the world, and of the merit of retiring from it. All this must greatly promote abstemiousness, in a life of solitary contemplation.

‘ Abstemiousness, when become habitual, promotes in return religious solitary contemplation. This may already in some measure appear; but it may not be superfluous to observe, that he who has, for a number of years, abstained from rich food, grows so feeble and delicate, that he cannot bear the shocks and rudenesses arising in intercourse with worldly men: coarse mirth, unfeeling selfishness, bold ostentation, act upon him with such a repulsive force, that it requires the utmost efforts of his courage and resolution to continue any time in ordinary society: he retires; he then finds himself at home; sheltered, protected: his fine tastes, his elegant conceptions, his mild and sweet affections, out of the reach of contempt and ridicule, spring forth, bloom, and flourish. And, when he has long continued in this way, he gets to think common life very faulty and imperfect, and attaches himself unalterably to a contemplative life, as to that, in which alone the lower part of man is duly degraded, and the higher faculties worthily honoured and respected.’ Vol. i. p. 356.

The writer's candour appears where he treats of heresy.

‘ An insight into the nature of heresy would make us candid to those writers, who differed from us; we should acknowledge, that no other cause of heresy need be assigned, than a desire of resolving difficulties, which have perplexed the generality of those, who have considered them: at least, no other than this, helped forward with a little vanity, and partiality for one's own inventions.

‘ And reflexion on our present subject would make us, as we were reading any ancient Christian author, constantly distinguish between an error professed, and one charged by adversaries upon those who did not profess it.—Nay, such reflexion would suggest apologies for the very authors, whose accounts we thought ourselves obliged to set aside: when we compared times, places, customs, traditions, and saw the imperfect records they had to judge from, and how natural it was for them, in their trying situations, to be agitated with zeal; we should feel an apprehension, that we, under the same disadvantages, might have run into more faulty excesses than they did.’ Vol. i. p. 387.

Our author's sentiments on ridicule we strongly recommend; and we cordially unite with him in his notice of Foote and the School for Scandal.

‘ We must not quite pass over Mr. Foote: he has a festivity, which is very enlivening, and he knew prevailing manners so well, as to ridicule them very happily; but he was too ignorant of religion to ridicule even its abuses with propriety.—When he ridicules abuses of the scriptural doctrines concerning the influence of the Holy Spirit, the shock, which he gives, is too strong. He seems not only to want theological knowledge, but knowledge of the hu-

man mind; or attention in entering into the feelings of rational Christians. Still, I would not fly from his ridicule, I would examine it gravely, in order to form an useful judgment from it; as a medical person would examine some things disgusting in their nature.—I can conceive the very abuses, which he ridicules, to be ridiculed, by Addison, or others, in such a manner as not to hurt my feelings. Eachard's account of parson Slipstocking, relates to the influence of the Holy Spirit, as well as Foote's ridicule, but it does not give me a very painful shock \*.' Vol. i. p. 452.

The benefits of ridicule are well stated; and the graver clergy cannot be offended at the hints from so grave a divine.

'Some of the clergy, who live retired, are apt, I fear, to become too serious; the moderate use of delicate and respectful ridicule might, in some cases, take off that seeming moroseness, that apparent rancour, with which they are sometimes apt to speak of the faults of their neighbours; meaning only honest indignation; and perhaps be a means, in other instances, of preventing the contrary extreme; for he, who prevents one extreme, often prevents another: Socrates must have been very pleasing in private life, and his wit must have had a great tendency to check such excesses as these.—I should be curious to know, whether Sterne thought of Socrates, in drawing Yorick, or Fielding in drawing Dr. Harrison? Some of the greatest men I have ever heard converse, have excelled in delicate and well-bred ridicule.' Vol. i. p. 454.

'In settling the uses of ridicule, we should determine, that it might be the means of shewing to ourselves and our friends those faults which most impeded our advancement in useful knowledge, virtue, and religion. It might hinder us from being pedantic, self-satisfied, proud, hypocritical, or from running into fanaticism, or superstition. And, if it were cultivated by men of abilities and talents; of polished minds, and amiable dispositions; it might, when mixed with worthy and pious sentiments, give such a grace and beauty to virtue and religion, as would make them universally loved and desired.' Vol. i. p. 458.

The professors of the law, as well as the divines, may profit by Dr. Hey's distinctions between the provinces of a judge and an advocate; and his rules for controversy are judicious. We will extract a part of what he says with regard to the qualifications and duties of a judge.

'He should be capable of making the nicest distinctions, as very few ingenious arguments can be solved without them.—As he

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\* Mr. Sheridan's Joseph Surface, in the School for Scandal, is, in my judgment, an hurtful piece of humour; sentiments are expressed as ridiculous, which really every honest man feels:—I think this the case; but the play has not been published, and I have only seen it once, and that in the year 1777: ridicule is, in this play, very useful in exposing censoriousness pretending to candour.'



has to judge from the whole of what he hears, a strong and nice retention must be requisite, and a power of throwing out superfluous matter, and setting the forcible parts in direct opposition to each other. Nor is it any trifling talent to make that, which has been urged in pompous and inflated language, easy and familiar, clear and popular.

‘ It may be doubted how far ornament and refined wit, Attic salt, should be reckoned a quality of a judge:—if all people loved truth heartily, and were capable of understanding and relishing nice distinctions, it would not be necessary: but a love of truth does not sufficiently animate the generality; and nice distinctions often give disgust, by wearing an appearance of sophistry and evasion: therefore, it were rather upon the whole desirable, that the judge should have something lively and entertaining in his manner. His wit, or fancy, should be of a lofty, polished, refined nature, never condescending to meanness or vulgar buffoonery. It should be a wit seeming to disdain wit.’ Vol. i. p. 405.

Our limits prevent us from going through the extensive range of subjects comprehended in the work before us. Each article affords matter for much discussion; and the mode in which all are treated may be very advantageous to a future lecturer. He may well employ himself in settling the difficulties which the reading of these volumes must excite in the mind of every student, in placing each object in a clearer point of view, and in extricating it from the maze of doubt in which it is involved; and perhaps, on this account, no work produced by the first lecturer could better answer the purposes of the founder of the lecture. Here is food for lecturing for a century; and not only the university, but also the dissenting academies, may profit by this publication. They will here find a great number of important propositions in theology; and, from the hints given to them, as well as from references to various authors, they may be able to form a consistent theory for themselves.

In one respect, however, this production may be considered as detrimental to the interests of the church. The morality of subscribing, in the writer's lax mode of treating the subject, is very suspicious; and it appears to be his aim to make the articles as palatable as possible to the present times. Hence it is to be apprehended, that the young students will become daily less attached to the appropriate doctrines of the church, and will think themselves at liberty to change at their discretion the meaning of its articles; and, instead of uniformity of opinion, the obvious scope of the framers of these articles, each parish will modify them by the caprice of its minister. The distinction also which is made between philosophers or priests, and common men, will, when it is generally known,

produce an effect similar to that which took place in the ancient world on the well-known esoteric and exoteric doctrines. Suspicion will attend every preacher; and, if he should advance a doctrine which may not suit the generality of his hearers, disputes will arise among them, whether he believes what he says, or merely considers it as proper for their belief.

Upon the whole, we are of opinion, that, though the students of the university of Cambridge may be benefited by the work, yet to candidates for the ministerial office in other situations, and to many who wish to entertain just notions of the doctrines of the church, it may prove a dangerous publication.

*Musci Oxoniensis Litterarii Conspectus et Specimina.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Elmsley.

*Musci Oxoniensis Litterarii Specimina.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Elmsley.

*Two Numbers of the Oxford Literary Museum, containing critical Observations on the Works of the Ancients, various Readings, &c.*

THE editor of this work is Mr. Burges, whose name is well known to the learned throughout Europe. His qualifications for a work of this nature are indisputable; and his extensive connexions with critics and philologists will aid him with ample contributions.

In the first number, we find remarks on various passages of Hippocrates, by M. Coray, a physician at Paris. Some of the proposed alterations are truly emendatory, while others are less strongly supported. We afterwards observe notes upon Aristotle's Poetics, left in manuscript by Casaubon, Jortin, and other scholars: but they are neither numerous nor important.

The new readings of Quintus Curtius, drawn from two manuscripts, are in many parts very different from the old; and occasional additions are made. The Commentaries of Proclus upon Euclid are considerably altered from a Leyden manuscript; and, from another copy, a new edition of that work may receive an important augmentation. The next article is a letter (before unpublished) from John Tzetzes to Epiphanius, involving classical and historical references.

The second number contains some curious and some trifling articles. M. Coray continues his labours upon Hippocrates; but all his conjectures are not conclusive. The dean of Rochester having furnished the editor with the observations of



Mr. Chilcot on the tenses of verbs, they are here inserted. The writer is of opinion, that Dr. Clarke was indebted for his ideas of the tenses (explained in a note on the 37th line of the Iliad) to the celebrated Roman grammarian Varro; but, if the literary abilities of our countryman had been less distinguished than they were, he might have drawn those conclusions from his own researches, without the smallest hint from any preceding author. The next article (communicated by the bishop of Rochester) consists of Raper's account of the successive editions of Aristophanes. Lord Monboddo's remarks upon some passages of Herodotus follow. He endeavours to demonstrate the accuracy of that historian in his statement of the dimensions of the largest of the Egyptian pyramids; and his attempt is so satisfactory to *himself*, that he adds, 'I am very glad to be able to vindicate from the charge of perplexity and obscurity so favourite an author of mine, who, I think, is the most delightful and the most instructive historian that ever wrote.'

The observations of the poet Gray on the Io of Plato, were copied from a volume of manuscript remarks, in which, the editor thinks, genius, learning, and judgment, are signally displayed.

'Excerptæ sunt' (he says in his prefatory address to Mr. Tyrwhitt) 'e spisso volumine Grayii observationum ineditarum in universa Platonis opera, in Strabonem, et geographos antiquos, in vetustissimos poetas Anglicos, in ecclesias cathedrales Angliæ, &c. scriptarum magna eruditione, summa diligentia, raro ingenio, et judicio acri, ita ut poeta ille cultissimus in vatum eruditorum numero, una cum Milto, merito censeretur.' p. ii.

Some of Mr. Gray's notes are trivial; but the conclusion merits transcription.

'As Serranus, and (I think) every one else after him, have read this dialogue with a grave countenance, and understood it in a literal sense, though it is throughout a very apparent and continued irony, it is no wonder if such as trust to their accounts of it find it a very silly, frivolous thing. Yet under that irony, there doubtless lies concealed a serious meaning, which makes a part of Plato's great design—a design that runs through all his writings. He was persuaded, that virtue must be built on knowledge, not on that counterfeit knowledge which dwells only on the surface of things, and is guided by the imagination rather than the judgment (for this was the peculiar foible of his countrymen, a light and desultory people, easily seduced by their fancy, wherever it led them), but on that which is fixed and settled on certain great and general truths, principles as ancient, and as unshaken, as nature itself, or rather as the author of nature. To this knowledge, and conse-

quently to virtue, he thought philosophy was our only guide: and all those arts that are usually made merely subservient to the passions of mankind, as politicks, eloquence, poetry, &c. he thought were not otherwise to be esteemed than as they are grounded on philosophy, and directed to the ends of virtue. Those who had best succeeded in them before his time, owed their success (he thought) rather to a lucky hit, to some gleam of truth, as it were, providentially breaking in upon their minds, than to those fixed unerring principles, which are not to be erased from a soul, that has once been thoroughly convinced of them. Their conduct therefore, in their actions, and in their productions, has been wavering between good and evil, and unable to reach perfection. The inferior tribe have caught something of their fire merely by imitation, and form their judgments not from any real skill they have in these arts, but merely from what La Bruyere calls *un gout de comparaison*. The general applause of mankind has pointed out to them what is finest; and to that, as to a principle, they refer their taste, without knowing or enquiring in what its excellence consists. Each muse (says Plato in this dialogue) inspires, and holds suspended her favourite poet in immediate contact, as the magnet does a link of iron, and from him (through whom the attractive virtue passes, and is continued to the rest) hangs a long chain of actors, singers, criticks, and interpreters of interpreters.' p. 46.

Mr. Granville Sharp has investigated, with some minuteness, the uses of the Greek article *ὁ* and the copulative *καί* in the New Testament; and some supplementary remarks, explanatory of different texts, are intended for the next number.

Annotations upon Horace by Faber and bishop Pearce, with a multiplicity of various readings of the Poetics of Aristotle, conclude the number.

*Transactions of the Society instituted at London, for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce; with the Premiums offered in the Year 1797. Vol. XV. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Robson. 1797.*

WE have already stated the general plan and views of this useful institution; and, in the present volume \*, we meet with no material deviations. An anxiety for the extension of various kinds of knowledge, and an attention to points of practical utility, are still evinced by the directors of the society. Some new objects of reward are proposed. Under the head

\* See the XIXth volume of our new arrangement, p. 414, for an account of the 14th volume of this work.



of agriculture, we find a *præmium* offered for 'harvesting corn in wet weather.' The reasons which have induced the society to bring forward this object, are these.

'It is many years since the society first offered a premium for discovering a method of making hay in wet weather; and however difficult the accomplishing that end may appear, yet the inestimable advantages the public would receive, if a good means of doing it could be discovered, and the pleasing reflexion, that many things, formerly thought impracticable, have of late years, from the improvements in mechanical and chemical knowledge, been reduced to practice, has [*have*] induced the society to offer a reward for harvesting corn in unpropitious seasons, an object peculiarly interesting to mankind in general, and more particularly so to this kingdom. Let us therefore hope, that, by the perseverance of the society, and the ingenuity of the public, some methods may be found to alleviate those inconveniences which this country, from its insular situation, is so peculiarly subjected to.' P. v.

On a former occasion, it was satisfactorily shown that opium, of the best quality, was capable of being produced and prepared in this climate; and now it only remains to be proved, whether it can be obtained in such quantity, and at such prices, as may render it an article of trade.

'To ascertain this fact, the society have, in this volume, first offered premiums for preparing opium in large quantities, in England. When the great importance of this drug in medicine, and the abominable adulterations it is liable to, are considered, it will appear to every judicious observer, that a more proper object of the attention and encouragement of the society can hardly be found.' P. vi.

The frequency of accidents to passengers in carriages, from the sudden fright of horses, and the dreadful consequences of explosions to persons employed in the manufacture of gunpowder, have induced the society to offer considerable rewards for the discovery of such means as may prevent those inconveniences and disasters in future.

We are pleased to observe that, under the class of 'Colonies and Trade,' the *præmia* of which were formerly confined to the West-Indian islands, there is now an extension to the East-Indies. This alteration originated in the following circumstance.

'Information having been received that a particular species of cotton was produced in some of the British settlements in Indostan, which might be of use in the manufactures of this kingdom, an honorary premium has been this session offered for importing a quantity of such cotton, that a fair trial may be made of it. The same also may be said of annatto and cochineal, both which

used to be imported at a considerable annual expence from foreign countries, but which, from accounts lately received, there seems great reason to believe, may, under proper encouragement, be produced in some of those parts of the East-Indies that are under the dominion of the British government.' p. viii.

Referring to what has been already accomplished, we find that, in the business of planting on barren and waste lands, much has been done by Mr. Curwen. Two hundred acres of ground of this description have been inclosed and planted with acorns.

The improvement of waste land is of great moment in different points of view: but, in Mr. Todd's mode of proceeding, we see nothing particularly excellent. He merited, however, the reward assigned to him; and some of the remarks contained in his paper deserve attention.

'The utility of improving barren grounds has not only been found to fill the pockets of the owners, but at the same time to contribute much to the happiness of the labourer, both with regard to constant employ, and as a sure means to reduce the article of bread; so that a more general attention to this system would silence the complaints of the poor about the dearness of provisions, and the murmurs of the farmers against heavy rates. Therefore it is my humble opinion that the labouring people could not be better employed, to universal advantage, than in the improvement and cultivation of barren land.' p. 198.

The mole plough, invented by Mr. Scott for the purpose of subterranean draining, will, we think, be found useful: but it cannot be generally employed; and one great objection to it arises from the strong team which it requires.

For the cultivation of rhubarb, Messrs. Stillingfleet and Jones have been respectively rewarded. The mode adopted by the latter is not very different from that which is pursued by the former; but, for the account of each, we refer to the volume.

We find one claimant of a recompense for the making of starch from materials not employed as food for man. Mrs. Gibbs has discovered a mode of preparing starch from the roots of a plant found in the common fields, the *arum maculatum*; but the high price of the root will probably prevent it from becoming an article of commerce.

Under the head of the Polite Arts, we observe an ingenious method of transferring paintings from one substance to another, for which we are indebted to Mr. Salmon.

In the papers relative to mechanics, we have descriptions of several inventions. Mr. Peck's packing-press, Mr. Ridley's improvement of the foot-lathe, and the machine of Mr. Davis for loading and unloading, promise to be very useful.



After this account of the volume, we have only to recommend to the society a careful investigation of the grounds on which claims of reward may be made. On a strict attention to this point, much of the utility of the institution depends.

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*The New Universal Gazetteer; or, Geographical Dictionary: containing a Description of all the Empires, Kingdoms, States, Provinces, Cities, Towns, Forts, Seas, Harbours, Rivers, Lakes, Mountains, and Capes, in the known World; with the Government, Customs, Manners, and Religion of the Inhabitants; the Extent, Boundaries, and Natural Productions of each Country; the Trade, Manufactures, and Curiosities of the Cities and Towns, collected from the best Authors; their Longitude, Latitude, Bearings, and Distances, ascertained by actual Measurement, on the most authentic Charts. With Twenty-Six whole Sheet Maps. By the Rev. Clement Cruttwell. 3 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 2s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.*

WE have long wished to see an accurate and very comprehensive gazetteer; and it is a circumstance reproachful to the industry of the times, that we should have been hitherto left to the mercy of careless compilers. The present gazetteer will remove the chief grounds of complaint, as it embraces a vast field, and appears to have been executed with great labour and care. It is justly observed in the preface, that, 'A gazetteer that is merely an abridgment, will, at one time or other, be of little use; for who can predict what shall be the most important spots of the earth, to which public attention may be directed? Experience, arising from the present war, convinces us, that places of apparent insignificance have grown into celebrity; while their name, situation, and connection with other places, were before almost unknown, or greatly subject to misrepresentation.'

When Mr. Cruttwell published his gazetteers of France and of the Netherlands\*, he gave some proof of his qualifications for the task of geographical compilation; and, in the execution of the work before us, he has gratified every reasonable expectation, and has not over-rated his merit when he says that, 'in every article, truth, accuracy, and impartiality, have been considered as fundamental principles, and invariably pursued.' His plan was to include every part of the known world that is capable of designation or description, pointing out its situation, particular character, form of government, commerce,

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\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. VIII. p. 82; and Vol. XI. p. 329.

and productions, and the peculiar customs and manners of the inhabitants; and the authorities consulted were numerous and of the best repute.

It cannot be expected that we should have formed our judgment of a work of this nature, from an examination of the whole. Where, however, we have bestowed that care, we have uniformly found the author correct not only in his history, but in the relative situations, distances, and measurements. We shall select the description of the Bermudas, and a part of the account of France, as specimens of the execution.

*Bermudas Islands*, or Somers Islands, a cluster of small islands, situated on the Atlantic ocean. They received their former name from John Bermudas, a Spaniard, who discovered them in the year 1503; the other name they take from sir George Somers, an Englishman, who was wrecked on them in the year 1609. They were granted by the Spanish king, Philip II, to Don Ferdinand de Camelo, who however never took possession. An English ship was forced on them by stress of weather in the year 1593. Sir John Somers, and his brothers, formed the first settlement soon after his shipwreck. They are in number 400 or more, but for the most part so small and so barren, that they have neither inhabitants nor name. Hardly one eighth part is inhabited. The most considerable of these islands are St. George, St. David, Cooper, Ireland, Somerset, Long Island, Bird Island, and Nonesuch. The first has a town, the two following some villages, the others only farms dispersed. The air is so healthy, that sick people from the continent of America frequently go thither for the recovery of their health. The winter is hardly perceptible, it may be said to be perpetually spring, the trees never lose their verdure, and the leaves only fall when new ones begin to appear, birds sing and breed without intermission; but these advantages are counterbalanced by frightful storms, accompanied by formidable thunders, which are announced by a circle round the moon. Some fertile plains are seen, but in general the country is mountainous. The soil is of divers colours, brown, white, and red, of which the former is the best; although light and stony, it is in general rich and fertile; the water is in general salt, having but little fresh, except rain water preserved in cisterns. The inhabitants gather two harvests of Indian corn in a year, one in July, the other in December: this forms the principal food of the inhabitants. They likewise cultivate tobacco, legumes, and fruit sufficient for their wants. Their trees are principally the cedar and palmetto, the former is much esteemed for its fragrance, its durability, and beauty, and for the facility with which it is wrought. Of this wood they build their ships, and often their houses and churches. The palmetto, a species of wild palm, is not less common, nor less useful; the fruit resembles a plum in its colour, form, and size; the wood serves for building, and the leaves, which are of an amazing length, are used to cover houses.



Besides these, they have orange trees, olive, laurels, pear trees, &c. The red wood is peculiar to these islands, its coloured fruit feeds worms, which change to flies, a little larger than cochineal, instead of which they are used. Another plant peculiar to them is a kind of creeping darnel, whose root is most powerfully emetic. Here are a great variety of birds, both of land and water; fish likewise abound upon the coast. Among the insects the spider is remarkable for its large size, but its beautiful colours diminish the disgust it inspires; its web is in colour and substance a perfect raw silk, and running from tree to tree, small birds are sometimes so entangled as hardly to be able to escape. There are no venomous reptiles in the island. In the year 1765, a society of the principal inhabitants engaged to form a library of all books of economics in every language; to employ all healthy persons of both sexes, according to their talents and their character, and to reward those who strike out any new art, or improve one already known; to provide for the honest workman, who is become old or past labour; and to indemnify any individual who should, from any circumstance, be oppressed. Building of ships and sloops is the principal trade of the inhabitants. These islands extend from north-east to south-west about fifteen leagues: the whole shore is surrounded with rocks, most of which are dry at low water, but covered at flood: 240 leagues SE. from Cape Fear in Virginia, and 280 E. from the continent of South Carolina. The north point of these islands lies long. 63. 28. W. Greenwich. Lat. 32. 34. N.

*France*, a country of Europe, bounded on the north by the English channel and the Netherlands, on the east by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy; on the south by the Mediterranean sea and Spain; and on the west by the Atlantic; about 200 leagues long, and 188 wide. At the decline of the Roman power, this country, then called Gaul, was invaded by the Franks, a people who inhabited the borders of the Rhine, and entirely subdued by them, under the conduct of their leader, or king, Clovis. These Franks were tall of stature, their hair light, and eyes blue; adroit, active, and courageous, they rushed forwards on their enemies, swift as an arrow; they put to death for the most part those whom they conquered; the spoils of the vanquished were their harvest; they dwelt in forests and in marshes, where their women resided; their cabins were of wood, constructed without art, and formed into scattered villages, without order. These savages, united together under the command of a prince, went with him to war, without being under his subjection in time of peace; their princes were rather the chiefs of their soldiers than kings of the people; they paid him no tribute, they divided the spoils, and they made him presents. Such were the conquerors of Gaul; such were the founders of the French monarchy. This nation afterwards became Christians, at least in name, if such can be called so, who submit to ceremonies of which they neither knew the design nor end; however, they insensibly lost their ancient manners. Their

democracy was effaced, and a military aristocracy succeeded. Their kings were always taken from the same family, which was that of Clovis. It produced but few great men. Theodebert is perhaps the only one who truly deserved the name. The generals were elected by the grandees, and these generals, under the name of mayors, became insensibly the chiefs of the state; made their kings to be forgotten; governed instead of them, and sat in their place. They could indeed perform nothing without the general assembly of the nation, which restrained their power. These assemblies were composed of the clergy and the nobility, whose consent was necessary both for war and peace, and the ordonnances of the prince, or rather of the mayor, could only be ratified or made into laws by them. But the mayors, by their great virtues, or by the splendour of their actions, generally influenced their decisions. This office in time became hereditary; Pepin Heristel governed all France for twenty-seven years; his widow and his grandson governed after him. This grandson was Charles Martel, a man worthy the power which he claimed, and who deserved to give kings to France, since he was the governor and defender, defeating the Mahometans, who meant to invade France, as they had already invaded Spain. He might have taken the title of king, he was contented with that of duke. Pepin, his son, proposed to the pope to decide which ought to bear the name of king; a prince without capacity, or a minister who governed with glory. The pope had need of Pepin; he decided that the minister ought to be king, and Pepin usurped the crown.

After some other historical remarks, the compiler adds,

‘The kingly government of France had continued from Clovis, who established himself at Soissons, in the year 486. Others call Pharamond the first king of France, who began to reign in the year 420. Hugh Capet obtained the crown of France in the year 987, and in the year 1793, on the 21st of January, Louis XVI, one of his descendants, was executed on a public scaffold at Paris, and with him ended the monarchy of France. His son, a minor, remained in prison to his death, which happened in the month of June, 1795. Thus France, after continuing a monarchy upwards of twelve hundred years, has been by the national assembly declared a republic; with the fall of monarchy, or indeed before, all titles of nobility were abolished; and all ecclesiastical domains, such as abbies, monasteries, convents, &c. were decreed national property; all tithes were abolished; the revenues of the higher orders of the clergy reduced, and the number lessened; annuities were granted to the professed; and to the parochial clergy a provision was granted, moderate, but perhaps superior to what they had before received as vicars. The ancient division into provinces, or governments, was also, by a solemn decree of the nation, changed into that of eighty-three departments, of which the island of Corsica made one.’

The following extract contains a descriptive sketch of the country.



' There is no country of Europe more beautiful or more agreeable to live in than France; the air in general is pure and wholesome, and the change of seasons is less inconvenient than in almost any other. It is not subject to such severe cold as Germany, nor to the violent heat of Italy and Spain. In the southern parts the winters are indeed sharp, but of short duration. The seasons are more regular than in England. The soil, diversified by mountains and plains, is watered by a great number of large and small rivers, which serve at once to fertilize the country and convey merchandize from one extremity of the nation to the other. The industry of the inhabitants, joined to its natural advantages, renders it one of the most fertile countries in Europe. It abounds in corn, legumes, fruit, wines, oil, pasture, hemp, and flax, sufficient for its own inhabitants, and much to spare. Here are mines of iron, lead, and copper, there are likewise some of silver and gold, but the last are not rich enough to defray the expences of working. The chief productions of France, for exportation, are wines, as Champagne, Burgundy, claret, &c. brandy, vinegar, fruit, such as prunes and prunelloes, dried grapes, pears, apples, oranges, and olives; corn, salt, hemp, flax, silk, resin, oil, soap, cork, kidskins, perfumes, drugs, &c. The manufactures are silks, such as lustrings, modes, brocades, velvets, &c. woollen cloth, linen, coarse and fine, lace, paper, China, of exquisite beauty and fineness, soap, &c. The French have for some years past obtained the secret from Spain of making Castile soap, as it is called, and have very large manufactures both at Marseilles and Toulon, and have thereby deprived the Spaniards of that valuable branch of trade. Nor is this the only benefit the French receive by this manufacture; for as one of the chief ingredients of making this soap is Levantine olive-oil, their large sale for their soap gives them the advantage of constant back-freights from the Levant with these oils; which, it seems, has proved one means of the French advancing their Turkey trade upon the ruin of the English. As France is certainly the most populous and extensive country of Europe, so its inland traffic is proportionate, and in many particulars far beyond any country in Europe; being carried on with great ease and little expence, by means of many large navigable rivers and canals. The arts and sciences have always been encouraged in France. The art of engraving has obtained great excellence, architecture, civil and military, has attained a high degree of perfection, and the construction of their ships has not been out-done even by the English themselves. The principal rivers are the Seine, the Loire, the Garonne, and Rhone. France is said to contain 400 cities or walled towns, 43,000 small towns or villages, and 25,000,000 of inhabitants. Paris is the capital.'

Amidst such a multiplicity of articles as the work contains, it is more than possible that some inaccuracies may be found; but these may be pardoned on account of the general correctness, which far exceeds that of any similar publication.

The maps which accompany this very useful gazetteer are  
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twenty-six in number, viz. the world—chart of the world on Mercator's projection—countries round the north pole—Europe—Russia—Sweden, Denmark, and Norway—Scotland—England and Wales—Ireland—France divided into provinces—also into departments—Batavia—Belgium—Germany—Spain and Portugal—Poland—Italy—Turkey—Africa—Asia—China—Hindustan—West Indies—British America—United States of America—and South America. These maps have been executed at a very considerable expense; and, when compared with the common maps, they will be found to have received the requisite alterations and corrections arising from recent discoveries.

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*An Essay on the Picturesque, as compared with the Sublime and the Beautiful; and on the Use of studying Pictures, for the Purpose of improving real Landscape. By Uvedale Price, Esq. A new Edition, with considerable Additions. Vol. I. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Robson. 1797.*

WE have already \* stated the points in dispute between Messrs. Knight and Price on the one side, and Messrs. Brown and Repton on the other; and we now re-enter upon the subject, in a survey of Mr. Price's essay.

He begins with recommending the study of pictures for the improvement of our landscapes. Intricacy and variety are, in his opinion, characteristics of the picturesque; and this foundation of its character is supported by an examination of the practice of the best painters. We think, however, that he has pursued his system too far. The tattered blanket round the squalid gypsy, the high irregular bank varied with the twisted roots of the old oak, are picturesque: but would we choose either as an object in our ornamented grounds? The irregular border of the naturally sloped grass, the tussocks of rushes, the rude mounds, are picturesque; but we, by general consent, avoid them. It does not follow, however, that we desert the principle: we only forbear to apply it too rigidly. When we have surveyed nature in her wild profusion, the eye and the mind seek for repose in calmer and more polished scenes. Human nature pursues the same plan in every region. Each smooths the spot immediately within his view, and corrects its rude irregularities.

Mr. Price, with a well-informed mind and some degree of taste, is able to correct the faults of his opponents, who have certainly carried their polishing system too far, and, by an uniformity of ornament, have given a single character to every scene which they have endeavoured to improve; but, on the other hand, he has extended his principle to such a length,

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\* See Crit. Rev. New Art. Vol. XVII. p. 14.



that the rough field and the high-banked lane must become the ornaments of our pleasure-grounds. The mind revolts at the idea; and, having thus reduced the new system to an absurdity, we must look for the error in the application of the principles. This consists in a too rigid adoption of the term *picturesque*. We would confine it to the principles of the landscape-painter in the arrangement of his objects, the judicious selection of those which ought to be more prominent than the rest, the harmony of grouping and colouring, and the breadth of light and shade.

The observations of Mr. Price on picturesque objects are in general judicious. We doubt only whether such objects can always be proper in ornamented grounds, where, as we observed, the mind requires repose, though not perfect vacuity. Beauty and picturesqueness are well discriminated; the one soft, flowing, and easy; the other, wild, irregular, and starting into an uncommon outline or a peculiar angle. Beauty, however, should predominate nearer home; picturesqueness, in the woods, in the arched and irregular cavern, in the abrupt turn of the rivulet, in the lane caught, and alternately lost, in its sinuous course. But to follow the picturesque, requires attention and exertion: at home we would repose, and aim only at so much variety as would relieve insipidity. We come nearer to our author's sentiments in the following passage; yet he generally requires too much of the poignant. As we have referred to the consent of mankind in general, he will allow us to refer to it in this particular instance. He will recollect that the poignancy of female-beauty and manner has always been supposed more suitable to the mistress than to the wife.

‘ If the principles of the beautiful, according to Mr. Burke, and those of the picturesque, according to my ideas, are just, it seldom happens that they are perfectly unmixed; and, I believe, it is for want of observing how nature has blended them, and from attempting to make objects beautiful, by dint of smoothness and flowing lines, that so much insipidity has arisen.

‘ The most enchanting object the eye of man can behold—that which immediately presents itself to his imagination when beauty is mentioned—that, in comparison of which all other beauty appears tasteless and uninteresting—is the face of a beautiful woman; but even there, where nature has fixed the throne of beauty, the very seat of its empire, she has guarded it, in her most perfect models, from its two dangerous foes—insipidity and monotony. The Greeks (who cannot be accused of having neglected the study of beauty, or, like Dutch painters, of having servilely copied whatever was before them) judged that a line nearly straight of the nose and forehead, was necessary to give a zest to all the other flowing

lines of the face; then the eye-brows, and the eye-lashes, by their projecting shade over the transparent surface of the eye, and above all the hair, by its comparative roughness, and its partial concealments, accompany and relieve the softness, clearness, and smoothness of all the rest. Where the hair has no natural roughness, it is often artificially curled and crisped\*, and it cannot be supposed that both sexes have been so often mistaken in what would best become them.' P. 125.

The remarks on the broad lights and shadows, on the bad effects of glaring white objects, and on what may be styled the picturesque in colour, are pertinent and just. These are very applicable to the management of grounds; and from this part we shall select a specimen.

'I have now mentioned what seem to me the principal beauties and defects of the earlier part of spring, at which time, however, the change is most striking: for as the season advances, and the leaves are more and more expanded, they no longer retain their vernal hue, their gloss of youth; and the trees, in the height of summer, lose perhaps as much in the freshness, variety, and lightness of their foliage, as they gain in the general fullness of it, and the superior size of their leaves.

'The midsummer shoot relieves the uniform green that immediately precedes it; in many trees (and in none more than the oak) the effect is singularly beautiful; the old foliage forms a dark back ground, on which the new appears relieved and detached, in all its freshness and brilliancy; it is spring engrafted upon summer. This effect, however, is confined to the nearer objects; the great general change in all vegetation from the green of summer, is pro-

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\* The instrument for that purpose is certainly of very ancient date, as Virgil (who probably studied the costume of the heroic age) supposes it to have been in use at the time of the Trojan war, and makes Turnus speak contemptuously of Æneas, for having his locks perfumed, and as madame de Sévigné expresses it, *frisés naturellement avec des fers*;

*Vibratos calido ferro, myrrhæque madentes.*

The natural roughness or crispness of hair is often mentioned as a beauty—*l'auree crespè crini—capelli crespè, e lunghe, e d'oro.*

'In many points the hair has a striking relation to trees; they resemble each other in their intricacy, their ductility, the quickness of their growth, their seeming to acquire fresh vigour from being cut, and in their being detached from the solid bodies whence they spring; they are the varied boundaries, the loose and airy fringes, without which mere earth, or mere flesh, however beautifully formed, are bald and imperfect, and want their most becoming ornament.

'In catholic countries, where those unfortunate victims of avarice and superstition, are supposed to renounce all idea of pleasing our sex, the first ceremony is that of cutting off their hair, as a sacrifice of the most seducing ornament of beauty; and the formal edge of the fillet, which prevents a single hair from escaping, is well contrived to deaden the effect of features.'



duced by the first frosts of autumn. Then begins that variety of rich glowing tints, which, at the early period of their change, so admirably accord with each other, and form so splendid a mass of colouring; so superior in depth and richness, to that of any other part of the year.

‘ It has often struck me, that the whole system of the Venetian colouring (particularly that of Giorgione and Titian, which has been the great object of imitation) was formed upon the tints of autumn; and that their pictures have thence that golden hue, which gives them (as sir Joshua Reynolds observes) such a superiority over all others. Their trees, foregrounds, and every part of their landscapes, have more strongly than those of any other painters, the deep and rich browns of that season. The same general hue prevails in the draperies of their figures, and even in their flesh, which has neither the silver purity of Guido, nor the freshness of Rubens, but a glow perhaps more enchanting than either. Sir Joshua has remarked, that the silver purity of Guido is more suited to beauty, than that glowing golden hue of Titian: it was natural for him to mention Guido, as being the painter who had most succeeded in beauty of form; but with less of that purity and evenness of tint, there is a freshness in that of Rubens which would admirably accord with beauty, though there are but few instances in his works of such a union.’ P. 194.

Mr. Price’s ideas of ugliness are rather uncommon; but they were required by his system, of which the influence is, in general, too great and extensive. It does not, he thinks, consist in straight lines or in sharp angles, but in massy, lumpish shapelessness. He has, however, confused this question by mixing his remarks on different objects, of which we must judge in different ways. The leaves of the plane-tree and the vine are angular, though not ugly; their beauty is not connected with their individual forms, but with their general masses and their general effect. A sharp turn of a hill is not ugly; but it ceases to be so, only when softened by distance, or when it breaks too great uniformity. In short, the *ugly* has not sufficiently shared the attention of philosophers with the beautiful; and we think this part of our author’s essay very valuable. Long straight lines and sharp angles are undoubtedly ugly: irregular lines and sharp angles may be picturesque: if you soften the irregularity and render the angles less sharp, they approach the beautiful. In the same way a vast unshapen object is ugly, as is also a dead muddy colour; yet, if you bend the outline and swell the surface of the one, and shade the other, they become picturesque, and, in suitable situations, even pleasing. No power of eloquence or reasoning, however, can make sharp and quick returns beautiful: we are willing to agree with Mr. Price in supposing

them occasionally picturesque ; but we would still keep them at a distance, visit them at some seasons, and never take them to our homes.

Of the improvements of Kent, our author does not speak very advantageously. Yet he did much ; and, though a mannerist, without enlarged views, or a very correct and cultivated taste, he introduced a considerable reform into our ornamented grounds. Against the present system, Mr. Price directs his shafts more pointedly ; and, with a pleasant raillery, he will probably be more successful than with sound arguments. The clumps, the belt, and the water, are the themes of much pleasantry and sarcasm.

‘ Before I enter into any particulars, I will make a few observations on what I look upon as the great general defect of the present system ; not as opposed to the old style (though I believe the latter to have been infinitely more free from it) but considered by itself singly, and without comparison. That defect, the greatest of all, and most opposite to the principles of painting, is want of connection—a passion for making every thing distinct and separate. All the particular defects I shall have occasion to notice, in some degree arise from this original sin, and tend towards it. The new creations, and the alterations of what was already in existence, have been all conducted on the same plan of distinctness ; and in consequence of that ruling principle, those numberless ties, those bonds of union (as they may be called) by which the different parts of landscape are so happily connected with each other, are unthought of in what is newly planned, and where they do exist, are destroyed. Yet those are the ties (minute and trifling as they may often appear) by which trees, in all their different arrangements, are reciprocally combined, and on which their balance, and even their contrast, depends ; by which water, when accompanied by trees thus variously arranged, is often so imperceptibly united with land, that in many places the eye cannot discover the perfect spot and time of their union ; yet is no less delighted with that mystery, than with the thousand reflexions and intricacies which attend it. What is the effect, when those ties are not suffered to exist ? You trace every where the exact line of separation ; the water is bounded by a distinct and uniform edge of grass ; the grass by a similar edge of wood ; the trees, and often the house, are distinctly placed upon the grass ; all separated from whatever might group with them, or take off from their solitary insulated appearance : in every thing you trace the hand of a mechanic, not the mind of a liberal artist.’

P. 251.

To this general observation we readily assent ; and, so far as there is a want of connection, we think the fault essential. The clump, as usually managed, is very objectionable ; and indeed, from the gradual changes produced in all plantations



by age, much must be occasionally altered. It is the improver's object, because his character depends on it, to put the place, speedily, into its best form. In a series of years this form is no longer adapted to its character; but this is no fault of the artist: it is an accidental change, for which he is not accountable. If the owner is not himself an artist, these variations are gradually more disadvantageous to the general effect.

To lawns, on the principles of picturesque beauty, Mr. Price is not very favourable; yet he is more indulgent to them than his system led us to expect.

From the third chapter of the second part, on water, we shall select some passages.

‘One of the most striking properties of water, and that which most distinguishes it from the grosser element of earth, is its being a mirror, and a mirror that gives a peculiar freshness and tenderness to the colours it reflects; it softens the stronger lights, though the lucid veil it throws over them seems hardly to diminish their brilliancy; it gives breadth to the shadows, and in many cases a greater depth, while its glassy surface preserves, and seems even to increase their transparency. These beautiful and varied effects, however, are chiefly produced by the near objects; by trees, and bushes immediately on the banks; by those which hang over the water, and form dark coves beneath their branches; by various tints of the soil where the ground is broken; by roots, and old trunks of trees; by tussocks of rushes, and by large stones that are partly whitened by the air, and partly covered with mosses, lichens, and weather-stains; while the soft tufts of grass, and the smooth verdure of meadows with which they are intermixed, appear a thousand times more soft, smooth, and verdant by such contrasts.

‘But to produce reflections there must be objects; for according to a maxim I have heard quoted from the old law of France (a maxim that hardly required the sanction of such venerable authority), *où il n'y a rien, le roi perd ses droits*; and this is generally a case in point with respect to Mr. Brown's artificial rivers. Even when, according to Mr. Walpole's description, “a few trees scattered here and there on its edges, sprinkle the tame bank that accompanies its meanders,” the reflections would not have any great variety or brilliancy.’ P. 331.

It may be questioned whether this criticism is perfectly correct. In a merely picturesque view, it is unexceptionable; but the feelings cannot be brought under the fetters of a system. The eye rests with complacency upon a watery expanse; and it relieves the insipidity of continual green, while the banks, which no improver can keep smooth and regular, will always supply some variety. If the form of the water is pleasing, it adds to the beauty. Thus the bay at Weymouth,

as unvaried and unruffled as any marine prospect can be, with as little picturesque beauty in the remoter hills as hills can afford, is highly pleasing from its extent and its form. A single fact of this kind destroys the airy visions of the mere picturesque improver, and shows that the mind can feel pleasure in the view of objects from which his system tells him none can be expected. A river, mæandering through a picturesque country, or through a vale, is beautiful in another way; but the mind must be *exerted* to catch it in its varied course: on the lake it *reposes* with placid tranquillity.

The remarks on the accompaniments of water are not particularly interesting: they are chiefly a repetition of the observations on trees. We shall add only a specimen of Mr. Price's raillery. It is more than usually '*picturesque*' (poignant).

'Mr. Brown and his followers are great œconomists of their invention: with them walks, roads, brooks, and rivers are, as it were, convertible works. Dry one of their rivers, it is a large walk or road—flood a walk or a road, it is a little brook or river—and the accompaniments (like the drone of a bagpipe) always remain the same.

'A brook, indeed, is not always dammed up; it sometimes (though rarely) is allowed its liberty; but, like animals that are suffered by the owner to run loose, it is marked as private property by being mutilated. No operation in improvement has such a an appearance of barbarity, as that of destroying the modest, retired character of a brook: I remember some burlesque lines on the treatment of Regulus by the Carthaginians, which perfectly describe the effect of that operation:

His eyelids they pared,  
Good God! how he stared!

Just so do these improvers torture a brook, by widening it, cutting away its beautiful fringe, and exposing it to day's garish eye.

'If, instead of being always turned into regular pieces of water, brooks were sometimes stopped partially, and to different degrees of height (particularly where there appeared to be natural beds, and where natural banks with trees or with thickets, would then hang over them) there would be a mixture, and a succession of still and of running water; of quick motion, and of clear reflection.'

P. 364.

Though we differ from Mr. Price in some points, we are highly pleased with his work. His delicacy and sensibility are indeed too vivacious; and he expresses his feelings with a warmth of which callous minds can form no adequate idea; but he displays much judgment, good taste, and benevolence.



*An Essay on Chemical Nomenclature, by Stephen Dickson, M.D. &c. In which are comprised Observations on the same Subject, by Richard Kirwan, LL.D. &c. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Johnson.*

A Dispute about words' is, among scientific inquirers, considered as the most idle engagement; and the various logomachies of metaphysicians and theologists are despised as trifling, or reprobated as absurd. Precision of language is, however, of importance in all literary pursuits; and, under the auspices of Aristotle and Locke, it has been cultivated with no common care. Mere nomenclature has been less regarded. The first defence of this branch of philology, which seemed to make an impression on the minds of philosophers, was in the *Critica Botanica* of Linnæus. It was also cultivated by Dr. Cullen in his *Nosology*; but the great improvements were effected by the French chemists. Philosophers yielded, with reluctant delay, to innovations so violent; but chemistry was cultivated in France with so much success, that those who would pursue the science were obliged to follow it in a new language. The French nomenclature, therefore, began to prevail: the necessity of reform was obvious; and, though the new attempts were often rash, and sometimes inaccurate, a great part was clear, correct, and discriminate.

Dr. Dickson and Mr. Kirwan have corrected what, in the French nomenclature, was inaccurate, and what was redundant. We shall transcribe, from the Introduction, a short defence of the attempt.

'The influence of language upon thought has, in all ages and countries, been considerable. This influence operates favourably to the interests of science, where there are etymologies which lead the mind at once to the intended object of contemplation; where there are well constructed compound words which prevent the labour of study; and the exertions of memory; and even where names of any kind are conferred on objects which, though presenting themselves before us every day, would be disregarded, like the faces of strangers whom we meet in the streets, had they not appropriate designations, an acquaintance with which arouses our attention, impels us to recognize those objects, and tempts us to an investigation of their nature. But in too many instances this influence is no less unfavourable to the advancement of knowledge: poverty of language circumscribes the flight of ideas; inaccuracy of expression precludes precision of thought; equivocal words generate erroneous opinions; the association of improper accessory ideas and judgments with well-known terms diffuses and strengthens prejudices; injudicious etymologies en-

trap the apprehension; and figurative expressions, mistaken for actual definitions, fill up the measure of confusion and inconsistency of thought that flow from the abuses of speech.' p. xi.

' Mr. Kirwan "thought it proper that some attempt should be made, at the present time, to ascertain the principles, and put a stop to the fluctuations of chemical languages." He was also desirous, on another account, of delineating the system of nomenclature which he adopted. "Within these last twenty years," he remarks, "the boundaries of chemistry have been much enlarged by the discovery of many new substances, and a revolution has taken place in some of its most important principles. In such circumstances some alteration of the received language was inevitable. The substances newly discovered, and their compositions, as well with each other as with the substances antiently known, necessarily demanded new names; and the denominations grounded on the abdicated principles required to be new-modelled to suit those that had supplanted them. In this state of things some eminent chemists have aimed at the entire subversion of the antient nomenclature; others have confined their schemes of reformation to such cases only in which the improprieties of denomination were prominent and notorious. With the principles of this class of reformers I confess my agreement. As none of them, however, has as yet published any plan of reformation adapted to the English language; and as I am at present at the eve of publishing a treatise in which many new terms must of course be introduced, I find myself necessitated to trace the outlines of the system of nomenclature I have followed; not from the presumptuous design of imposing it upon others, but merely from the view of rendering my own future communications more intelligible." p. xiv.

As it is probable that this refinement of the chemical nomenclature will be adopted only by degrees, we shall not greatly enlarge our account of it; but we ought to intimate, that this work rises above a mere nomenclature. The philological and critical remarks are numerous, and frequently just; and the chemical observations are sometimes new, and generally ingenious.

Like Linnæus, Dr. Dickson has prefixed some rules of chemical nomenclature, most of which are too obvious and too just not to require our immediate assent.

' The same specific name should never be applied to substances of different species—Synonyms should be sparingly admitted—Ancient names which express the same combinations of ideas as we have occasion to employ should be preferred to new ones, unless they have grown obsolete; but every name ought to be applied as nearly as possible in the sense which general use has annexed to it.—New names ought not to convey hypothetic distinctions—



New names ought to assimilate with the language into which they are introduced, and ought to correspond with the genius of the languages from which they are respectively derived—New names ought to be derived from the Latin, in preference to any other foreign language.' P. i.

With the last rule we cannot wholly co-incide: the Greek language is more euphonous, and runs more easily into compound words than the Latin; and it is therefore, in general, preferable. Our author's defence is too long for an extract; and it is one of those parts which have been managed with unusual care, as the engineer's art is more eminently displayed in a weak position.

In the consideration of phlogiston as a principle, Dr. Dickson gives a short but comprehensive view of the remaining controversy on this subject; and in that of mephite (the azote of the French chemists), he considers Dr. Priestley's arguments, in opposition to the composition of water, and gives judicious reasons for not adopting azote, nitrogene, or alkaligene.

The account of ancient opinions respecting air, and the history of these doctrines down to the gas of Van Helmont, are curious and interesting. The oxygenated nitrous gas our author would call epinitrous air. To the spirit of vitriol he gives the usual appellation of vitriolic acid, and, to the volatile kind, that of sulphureous acid. He speaks of the oxy-vitriolic, the nitro-vitriolic, and the mephitised vitriolic acid; and he has reformed, in many instances, the nomenclature of acids.

The alterations in the names of alkalis, earths, and metals, are not of great importance; but the incidental disquisitions are entertaining. On the whole, Dr. Dickson has enlivened a dull subject with art and learning; and his work will probably survive the nomenclature which gave occasion to it.

*Malvern Hills: a Poem. By Joseph Cottle. 4to. 2s. 6d. sewed. Longman. 1798.*

*Malvern, a Descriptive and Historical Poem; by Luke Booker, LL. D. Dedicated to the Right Honourable Julia, Viscountess Dudley and Ward. 4to. 3s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1798.*

DR. Booker expresses his surprise that no poet should previously have celebrated the delightful scenery of Malvern; but it is more extraordinary that two poems upon the subject should have appeared at the same time. We agree with him, in considering descriptive poetry as a difficult species of composition; but he has spoken too strongly of 'the difficulty of

duly treating so sublime a theme, — of adequately delineating so rich a prospect; a theme that transcends the fullest and most cultivated extent of poetical ability; a prospect, on beholding which,

‘ Description fails  
And drops her pencil in despair.’ P. xi.

Of the two writers Dr. Booker is more abundant in local knowledge; but this is sometimes disadvantageously introduced, particularly when he speaks

‘ Of all the numerous seats of elegance  
Which rise around him—  
Such the demesne of HORNYOLD, and such  
A TEMPEST’S, BRYDGES’, YATES’—’

Both poets are equally digressive; Mr. Cottle, in expressing, too diffusely perhaps, the feelings of benevolence and devotion excited by the scenery; Dr. Booker, in dwelling too long upon the manufactories and buildings and bishops of Worcester. In no point are they more different than in their opinions respecting commerce. The latter praises the weavers and the ‘artists in porcelain,’ and has inserted a Philippic against shoe-strings, which, we have no doubt, will be considered as highly just and poetical by all the buckle-makers of Birmingham. In the eye of the former, the commercial world assumes a different appearance; he speaks of large manufactories in a manner which reflects credit on his feelings; and the evils pointed out in his notes \* demand attention.

In describing the immediate scenery of Malvern, Dr. Booker excels:

‘ Ye mountains nobly prominent! from far  
Seen by your poet,—daily seen with joy—  
Tho’ vasty prospects—e’en to Cambria’s hills,  
He boasts, and tho’ his comprehensive view  
Be richly graced with Nature’s rival charms,—  
Water, and wood, and hill, and many a fane  
With tower or spire,—you chiefly he admires,  
Sublimely rising like the giant-clouds  
Which eve assembles in the western sky,  
When day’s bright monarch, curtain’d round with gold,  
His other hemisphere retires to blest.  
As Athos o’er th’ Ægean sea, I mark  
You, o’er the champaign, rear your shadowing form  
Irregularly huge, august, and high:  
Mass pil’d on mass, and rock on ponderous rock,

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\* We allude more particularly to the note respecting the pin and white lead manufactories, p. 45.



In Alpine majesty,—your lofty brows  
Sometimes dark frowning, and anon serene,—  
Wrapt now in clouds invisible, and now  
Glowing with golden sunshine: now mid-way  
Broad nebulous zone engirds you, like the belt  
Of that resplendent star whose mighty orb,  
Rolling thro' boundless space, the mine of night  
Illumines; in his never-ceasing course  
Attended by his moons of fainter light.

‘ Not distant now, ye mountains! I admire  
Your form stupendous; but (oft wish'd) approach  
Early, while yet the noiseless village sleeps,  
To gain your summit; season fit to rise  
Above the level plain so high in air.  
No burning sun now vapours grey exhales  
From humid meads, enveloping the view:  
No winds yon cottage chimney's curling smoke  
Disperse, scarce e'en disturb. The slender stems  
Of hare-bells blue are motionless and still:  
The thistle-down assumes its silvery wing,  
As if to wanton with the morning breeze,  
But to the ground, unbuoyant, soon descends.  
Tranquillity the elements pervades,  
And harmony the woods. No cloud obscures  
The wide horizon's undulating line,  
Where join'd seem earth and sky,—where azure mist  
Veils the soft landscape melting into light.  
—This winding path, close cropt by nibbling sheep  
(Its end the summit)—now my steps pursue.  
Keep earthward bent the eye,—forbearance wise,  
Diminishing, by no impatient gaze,  
Its pleas'd astonishment when sudden bursts  
The full, the wide circumference on its view.  
—When shall forbearance cease?—my beating heart  
Pants, like an eager steed, for liberty,  
When sounds the trump, to rush into the war.—  
—Now level treads the foot—the summit's gain'd—  
“ Great God of Nature!—these thy glorious works!  
Almighty! thine this universal frame!” p. 7.

But, in the description of the 'well, Mr. Cottle is superior:—

‘ ————— the holy well.

A plain stone dwelling, weather-worn and rude  
Stands singly by. There never sound is heard  
But the bleak wind, that, howling from above,  
Sweeps the bald mountain's side, and urging on  
It's boisterous way, at length forgets its rage,

In dallying with the valley's scattered trees:  
 Save when the sky is hush'd, and to the ear  
 The never-ended bubblings of the spring  
 Send the same note—the same unvarying note.' P. 29.

In his account of Hanly Castle there is one beautiful passage:

' Now not one stone remains to claim the tear  
 Of passing man—save when the hollow winds,  
 Bending the night-shade's head, or nettle rank,  
 Disclose some sculptured fragment, green and damp,  
 And half conceal'd in earth.' P. 34.

The reflections suggested by this spot, and by the fall of its possessors, are superior to any part of Dr. Booker's poem.

' Where is now the scowl  
 Of haughty Independence? where the views  
 That agitated once their glowing breasts  
 With hopes of high achievement, and inspired  
 Their youthful progeny to dare the wars  
 Of Cambria or of France? awhile they liv'd  
 In splendor's gayest hall, and laugh'd, and sung  
 The merry roundelay, or bade the harp  
 Swell with tumultuous joy. No more is heard  
 The song of gladness: and the blooming cheek—  
 The graceful step that held th' admiring eye,  
 Hath ceas'd to charm! the throbbing heart is still!  
 Both fires and children, all have had their days  
 Of pain and ease, disquietude and joy,  
 And now repose on earth, our common nurse!  
 She whisper'd not, nor with enticing look  
 Call'd to her arms these sons of affluence,  
 She never calls the great, the rich, the proud  
 With soft and winning accent, but preserves  
 Silence unbroken, save when some slow knell  
 Sends through the air at midnight a report  
 Warning and terrible. But to the poor  
 She yields a voice of comfort, sanctified  
 And pointed rightly by that word of truth  
 Heaven hath vouchsaf'd to man. Most goodly then  
 These scatter'd spires appear, these aged towers  
 Which to some little flock the path-way tell  
 That leads to life eternal, where the ills  
 Which strew'd their mortal way shall never come.  
 And honor'd be the men who here preside,  
 And, with sincerity and holy zeal,  
 Point the celestial road! to simple minds  
 Reveal those holy truths, the which to hear,  
 And from the heart receive most willingly,



Blunts the keen shafts of sorrow ; well they know  
The conflict will be short—the triumph sure.' p. 35.

In their allusions to the battle of Evesham, both writers speak of the earl of Leicester without one palliating epithet. The name of Simon de Montfort is infamous ; remembering the Albigenses, we connect with it the ideas of religious persecution and priestly massacres : but the vices of the father were not those of the son ; and, unjustifiable as the conduct of the earl of Leicester was in many respects, the man must have possessed some virtues whose memory, branded as it was, was long dear to the people, and who, though condemned as a traitor, was long revered as a saint. The crimes of this nobleman are remembered ; but he is not enumerated, as he ought to be, among the eminent persons to whom England is indebted for its liberties.

Mr. Cottle's versification is preferable to that of the other writer ; and, upon the whole, though the descriptive part is less appropriate, we give the preference to his poem. It does honour to his feelings and his abilities. We will give another extract from it : the description of the piper is admirable, and the simile at the conclusion is new, just, and beautiful.

‘ Even now my heart beats high, for now I hear  
The village bells beneath play merrily.  
From hill to hill imperfect gladness bounds,  
And floating murmurs die upon the air.  
It is the long-look'd pastime now begun !  
Aye ! there they are upon the level green,  
Maiden and rustic, deck'd in best attire  
And ushering in the Whitsun holidays.  
Weaving the mazy dance, fantastic, whilst  
Encircled by a gaping croud of boys,  
The merry piper stands, and, capering, plays ;  
Or, half forgetful of his half-learn'd tune,  
Looks scantways to behold his fav'rite lass  
Pair'd with another ; haply, smiling too.  
The aged ploughman now forgets his team,  
And, tho' to join the skipping throng too old,  
Laughs to see others laugh, he knows not why,  
Or, if in graver mood, looks wond'rous wise,  
And tells his hoiden daughters as they pass,  
Hold, maidens ! hold ! no whispering in the dance.  
All, all is life and soothing jollity !  
That king of sports is there, the mountebank,  
With antic tricks, or, with no sparing hand,  
Dealing around some nostrum, famed, alike  
Specific in all pains and maladies.

And there the village matrons gaily trimm'd,  
 With lace and tucker, handed down secure  
 Through a long line of prudent ancestors;  
 And never shewn to gaping multitude,  
 Save at some marriage gay, or yearly wake.  
 Musing the mothers look o'er all the plain,  
 A cheerful smile unbends their wrinkled brow,  
 The days departed start again to life,  
 And all the scenes of childhood re-appear,  
 Faint but more tranquil, like the changing sun  
 To him who slept at noon and wakes at eve.  
 Children of innocence, sport on in peace!  
 Enjoy the fair, but fleeting morn of life,  
 And may no tempest spoil your holiday.' P. 64.

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*A Review of Mr. Wilberforce's Treatise, entitled A practical View of the prevailing Religious System of professed Christians, &c. In Letters to a Lady. By Thomas Belsham. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Johnson. 1798.*

MR. Wilberforce, in his views of Christianity, seems to differ as much from the church of England on the one hand, as the author of the present work does on the other. The gloomy spirit of Calvin prevails in the former, the philosophy of Socinus in the latter. Hence a member of the church, who has perused one of these performances, would act wisely in taking the other as a corrective; and, from the impression which the two works have made upon us, we have reason to think that he would come to this conclusion: the one, if true, he would almost wish to be false; the other, if false, he would almost wish to be true. The one leaves him under the guidance of his passions; the other exhorts him to submit to the control of his reason.

From this view of the subject, and from what we have already said of Mr. Wilberforce's production\*, our readers may collect the chief articles in which the two authors differ. We shall, therefore, only select a few passages, whence a true judgment may be formed of the sentiments and style of Mr. Belsham's work. On character is this judicious observation:

'Character is the sum total of moral and intellectual habits, and the proportion of virtuous habits, in the worst characters, exceeds that of vicious ones. But no character takes the denomination of virtuous unless all the habits are on the side of virtue: whereas one evil habit is sufficient to stamp a character vicious.' P. 14.

The same sentiment is enforced in another letter.

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\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XX. p. 164.



‘ Character is the sum total of habits. But in forming an estimate of moral worth, it is an invariable principle that one vice stamps a character vicious, while a thousand virtues will not atone for one immoral habit. If a man be a liar, or dishonest, or intemperate, or impious, his character is denominated vicious, with whatever virtues it may otherwise be adorned. “ He who keepeth the whole law, and offendeth in one point, is guilty of all.” And the reason is evident, virtue is that system of habits which conduces to the greatest ultimate happiness; vice is that which diminishes happiness or produces misery. The union therefore of a single vice with a constellation of virtues, will contaminate them all; will prevent them from producing their proper effect, and will, in proportion as it prevails, diminish the happiness, or produce the misery of the agent, who never can attain the true end of his existence till this vice is eradicated. He cannot enjoy perfect moral health till every mental disorder is radically removed.’  
P. 37.

This view of character, formed by habits, is totally opposite to the sudden changes by the new birth of the Calvinists; and the different effects of reason and passion in religion are strikingly described in the following quotation.

‘ After all, though the objects of religion are of sufficient dignity and magnitude to excite and interest our best affections, when steadily contemplated, it ought to be remembered that a mechanical glow of the passions is by no means essential to the practice of religion and virtue, especially at the commencement of a virtuous course. Men enter upon and pursue their occupations in life, not from passionate feelings, but from rational conviction that these are the best means of providing in a just and honourable way for the subsistence, comfort, and respectability of themselves and their families: and if the employment is at first irksome, the principles upon which they act will stimulate them to perseverance, and by degrees they will form an attachment to professions to which originally they were little inclined. In like manner, a person of reflection will enter upon the practice of religious virtue, not from any passionate and transient emotions, but from the deliberate conviction of his judgment, that a pious and virtuous conduct will be ultimately conducive to his best interest; and though the practice of virtue may occasionally be unpleasant, may require self-denial, and may expose him to difficulties and inconveniencies, which would subdue a resolution inspired only by the passions, they will make little impression upon a purpose which originates in the deliberate conviction of the understanding. And by degrees, habits of rectitude will be insensibly established, and virtue will be loved and practised for its own sake. The religious principle is of too much importance to be made dependent upon the passions,

which wise men discard in all affairs of moment, lest they should warp and mislead the judgment.' P. 82.

With regard to the observance of a sabbath, our author leans more to the general opinion than Mr. Wilberforce.

'To a true Christian, every day is a sabbath, every place is a temple, and every action of life an act of devotion, A Christian is not required to be more holy, nor permitted to take greater liberties upon one day than upon another. Whatever is lawful or expedient upon any one day of the week is, under the Christian dispensation, equally lawful and expedient on any other day.' P. 20.

A 'sabbatical spirit,' and mere 'ritual practices are very improperly, and unwarrantably represented, as "essential constituents of a devotional frame :"' This is another instance of that narrow and censorious spirit which is generated by too great an attachment to the forms of religion. A man who goes to church four times a day, commonly thinks himself a better Christian than he, who is contented with three services only; who in his turn triumphs in his spiritual superiority over the man that satisfies himself with two. While the latter, if not more than usually charitable, regards his Christian brother who goes but once, as little better than a heathen.' P. 141.

We cannot but express our disapprobation, when we find the mode of worship of a great body of Christians stigmatised with the name of idolatry, and the term *Unitarian* (claimed with reason by the members of the church of England) denied to all who have not similar ideas of the unity of Godhead with this writer. Neither point came necessarily under discussion; and disgust may by such language be excited, where it ought particularly to be prevented. But we must now take our leave of the two antagonists; and to whatever praise Mr. Wilberforce may be entitled from his Calvinistic brethren, a much greater portion is due to Mr. Belsham from the persons of his persuasion; and, whatever may be the fate of the doctrine of each writer, from the latter we cannot withhold the credit due to one who is an acute reasoner, and, in general, a candid controversialist.

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*The Oriental Collections for April, May, and June, 1797.*  
4to. 10s. 6d. sewed. Harding. 1798.

IN our review of the first number of this repository\*, we expressed our hope that the work would become more interesting in its progress; but we cannot say that our expectations have been answered.

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\* See our XXIII Volume, New Arr. p. 73.



In the second number, we are first presented with some original notes, which the editor found in the hand-writing of the traveller Chardin, in a manuscript copy of the Gulistan of Sadi. They tend to explain various passages of that celebrated work.

The next article is a conclusive continuation of the *memoranda* respecting the Dekan, or the Nizam's country. The writer speaks with rapture of the engaging and elegant manners of the military officers and the gentry of that state; and he adds, that an European is particularly surprised at the behaviour of the children.

'With all that is infantine and engaging, they can upon cases of ceremony assume the unaffected steadiness of an old courtier. By paying attention to what was said to these children by their tutors, and by observing the most admired and popular characters among the men, I endeavoured to acquire some insight into what stile of manners was held in greatest repute among the Moors; and I found the leading principle of external behaviour to be a majestic and martial deportment, a serene and steady countenance, which should remain calm and unaltered amidst the greatest events, neither manifesting signs of depression nor exaltation, but capable of that pliability which softens the countenance to the reception of friends, and accompanies good offices with a benignant smile. This frequently borders upon dissimulation, since condemned persons of rank have often been dismissed from the presence to execution without threats or menaces; but with every mark of politeness.' P. 100.

Among other particulars relative to the inhabitants of this territory, we observe the mention of the following circumstances.

'Though they shave their hair close, and that their dress has been the same for many ages, admitting no variety of fashion, yet they pass a long time at their toilettes in washing, rubbing, and perfuming the whole body; which being frequently exposed to fight, (indeed always in their undress at home) they are very careful to polish and render smooth and shining: and in order to supple their limbs, and give grace and strength to their bodies, they make use of violent exercises within the house, with dumb bells, or heavy pieces of wood, which they whirl about the head, so as to open the chest and strengthen the arm, which may account for their being such excellent swordsmen. They also stretch themselves at full length upon their hands and feet, kissing the ground hundreds of times without suffering the body to come in contact with it, which occasions a general exertion to the whole frame. This, with their exercise on horseback, may account for their activity and ability to undergo fatigue when called upon by war; which

they would certainly be incapable of doing, if, as many have supposed, they were to pass their lives supinely lolling upon sofas smoking their pipes.' P. 101.

Some specimens of the vulgar dialect of Morocco are followed by 'Arabian and Persian Traditions of the Origin of Writing.' The prophet Enoch (says an Arabian author) was the first who, after Enos the son of Seth, wrote with a pen; and, in the Shah Nameh, the admired poem of Firdausi, the *deeves* (dæmons) are said to have taught letters to Tahmuras, king of Persia.

Remarks on the affinity between a nuptial custom of the Persians and one which prevailed among the ancient Jews and Greeks, are given by major Ouseley. Mr. Eyles Irwin has described the grotto of Camoëns at Macao, of which a print is introduced. A correspondent from Cambridge recommends the *Ajaieb Al-Makhloukat*, or the Wonders of Creation, to the attention of orientalists. This is the work of Zechariah ebn Mohammed ebn Mahmoud al Cazviny, who died about the year 1275 of the Christian æra; and it offers to an 'ingenious translator a rich fund of materials for extracts.' Quotations from a Turkish manuscript appear in the sequel; and, in a tedious letter, Mr. Granville Penn refers the word *περρα*, used by Lycophron, as well as *πυρ*, to an Egyptian origin.

A second extract from the historical work of Ahmed ebn Afem of Cufa has been translated by Mr. Gerrans. It relates to the flight and murder of Yezdeجرد, the Persian monarch. This prince, according to Ahmed, was received into a mill-house, and killed, while he was reposing, by the servants of the miller; for which act of savage treachery, even the pursuers of the king put them and their master to death. But Abou'l-Faraj informs us, that the royal fugitive was slain by some horsemen from the army of his enemies, while he was soliciting the miller's protection. On the subject of this difference of statement, Mr. Gerrans thus writes in a note:

'Great as the authority of Abil Pharage may be, the circumstantial account which Ahmed Ibn Afem gives of the expedition against Persia, the heroic actions of a Persian prince, and other chiefs who fell in that bloody and decisive battle which subjugated their country to the Moslems, inclines me to give the preference to the Cusæan manuscript.' P. 163.

We may here observe, that neither account is improbable, though both cannot be true.

In a short essay, it is affirmed that

'Chehlminar of the present day is known to be Istakhar, and Istakhar by Oriental records is proved to have been the seat of empire, the metropolis of Persia, where Alexander sat on the throne of his vanquished foe, the burial place of the ancient kings; in



short, though nothing now remains but the ruins of its imperial palace, the Persepolis of classick history.' P. 171.

The editor has extracted a description of Cashmere from Rafie'ddin, a Persian poet. It is florid, even to puerility. We will quote the *critique* on the Divan of that writer.

' In a work of such magnitude as the Divan of Rafied'din, (which contains near 15,000 distichs), it is not to be expected that all the poems should possess equal merit. His style is not by any means sublime: the thoughts in many of his sonnets, and indeed the very words, are borrowed from the more celebrated poets; yet, in a multiplicity of instances, he exhibits a pleasing originality, which distinguishes him from the crowd of Persian versifiers, whose Divans in general contain little more than tiresome descriptions of spring and its delights, in which the same images recur a thousand times, or incoherent rhapsodies, half amorous, and half religious. Though similar inconsistencies abound in the sonnets of our poet, who appears to have been at once a passionate lover, a zealous devotee in religion, and an enthusiastick admirer of beauty, (a combined character applicable, perhaps, to all the Persian lyrics), yet his Divan is peculiarly valuable, on account of the numerous local and historical allusions found in it;—anecdotes of men whom he had personally known;—descriptions of places he had travelled or resided in;—of curious objects he had seen, and of transactions in which he himself had been concerned.' P. 173.

Among the succeeding articles are an ode of Khosroo (elegantly translated), observations on the poetry of Hafez, two Persian sonnets, and one in the Turkish language.

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*Elements of the Critical Philosophy: containing a concise Account of its Origin and Tendency; a View of all the Works published by its Founder, Professor Immanuel Kant; and a Glossary for the Explanation of Terms and Phrases. To which are added three Philological Essays; chiefly translated from the German of John Christopher Adelung, Aulic Counsellor and first Librarian to the Elector of Saxony. By A. F. M. Willich, M.D. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Longman. 1798.*

THE philosophy of Kant is little known in this country. The Germans find it very difficult to understand him in their own language; and the English will not take the trouble to make themselves masters of all the new meanings which he gives to old words. We are however indebted to the author of the work before us, for enabling our countrymen to form some idea of the new philosophy, without encumbering them-

selves with all the works to which it has given birth. The system is founded upon this principle, 'that there is a free reason independent of all experience and sensation;' and one chief branch is

'To investigate the whole store of original notions discoverable in our understanding, and which lie at the foundation of all our knowledge; and at the same time to authenticate their true descent, by showing that they are not derived from experience, but are pure productions of the understanding.' P. 44.

This doctrine is opposite to that which we have imbibed from Locke, importing that our ideas are derived from sensation and reflection. As we despair of making the Kantian principles intelligible in common language to our readers, we shall content ourselves with a few extracts, which may stimulate some of them to make deeper inquiries into these metaphysics.

' BELIEF—*Glaube*,

'1, signifies the act of taking something for true, on account of sufficient subjective, without any objective, reasons for doing so; or, in other words, to conceive things as subjects of cognition, or to admit their possible existence; because reason enjoins it. These subjective grounds are a certain interest, certain purposes;—

'2, the habit, the moral way of thinking, by which reason considers as true, what is inaccessible to our theoretical cognition of things;—

'3, in particular, *fides sacra*; the adoption of religious principles.' P. 146.

' CHANGE—*Veränderung*,

accidens, is the succession of different states, transition of a thing from one state to another; the co-existence of what is standing and steady in time, with that which changes; the connection of opposite predicates in one and the same object, but at different times, v. g. motion, i. e. a being and not-being of the same thing, in the same place, but at different periods of time.' P. 148.

' CRITICISM,

with Kant, signifies a critical mode of proceeding (doubts of delay) i. e. the maxim of general distrust with respect to all synthetical judgments *a priori*, until we have acquired a view of the universal ground of their possibility, in the essential conditions of our faculties of cognition.

' CRITIQUE OF PURE REASON,

or transcendental critique, is the science of the pure faculty of reason; the inquiry into those particulars, which reason is able to



know and to perform, from its own sources, and independent of experience.' P. 152.

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‘ DIVINES—*Geistliche*

are teachers of the pure moral religion; as being opposed to ‘priests,’ i. e. the consecrated ministers of pious customs and ceremonies.’ P. 155.

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‘ TOTALITY—*Allheit*,

the representation of the whole, (*universitas*); that function of the understanding, by which, when it is applied to conceptions, a plurality of cognitions is comprehended and connected into a general one; when applied to perceptions, totality is nothing else than plurality considered in things as unity, and forms a species of a category, viz. that of quantity.’ P. 181.

But the Kantian philosophy is not always obscure: it condescends at times to use plain terms; and the following is a good definition of man.

‘ MAN—*Mensch*,

a moral being, subject to moral laws by virtue of his rational nature: hence it is highly improper to call him a fighting animal, as some of the modern court-philosophers are pleased to define him.—A bad man, is he who has adopted deviation from the moral law as a maxim; a good man, who values the moral law as his supreme maxim;—an accomplished man, who is both inclined and able to communicate his agreeable feelings to others;—a man of good morals, whose actions correspond with the moral law.’ P. 167.

In this work we find a catalogue of Kant’s writings, and a satisfactory account of each. The writer was a pupil of Kant, and is still attached to his philosophy. But most of our readers will be better pleased with the three essays of Adelung; a name little known in England, though it is that of a very extraordinary linguist. His dictionary of the German language is the completest lexicographical work ever published; and, compared with it, the dictionary compiled by Dr. Johnson is a trifling work. The merits and demerits of the latter are the subject of the third essay; and the admirers of Johnson will not be pleased with seeing so many faults pointed out in the work. In the two former essays we observe a good account of the English language; part of which is taken from the introductory portions of the New Annual Register. Of a remarkable circumstance in our language, Adelung has formed better notions than his editor.

‘ The more refined Normannic tongue, with which the people

were already acquainted, was mingled with the dialect of the natives: and as England henceforth continued to improve in knowledge and taste, by its intercourse with France, it happened, that the French language displayed its influence more and more upon that of the English; particularly as its kindred dialect, the Normannic, had already paved the way for this mixture. Hence, too, we can explain the singular phenomenon, that of two names given to the same object, the one of which is of Saxon-Danish, and the other of Normannic or French extraction, the latter should be more dignified than the former, or, at least, used more frequently among the higher classes of society. The words *ox*, *calf*, *wether*, are derived from the Danish Saxon; but *beef*, *veal*, and *mutton*, from the Normannic French. Many other instances of a similar nature occur in modern English.' p. lxxxvi.

The meat was bought of Saxon butchers by Saxon servants; the masters spoke of it in the language of their own country; and thus by degrees it acquired a French appellation, while the animal retained its original name. The German philologist, however, is in the wrong, when he attributes, in the following instance, bad taste to the people of this country.

'England, since the preceding century, has been gradually adopting the round Italian letter, in all writings designed for the higher and middle classes; while, on the contrary, in such writings as are immediately addressed to the common people (for instance, in acts of parliament, public deeds, &c.) the old angular character, generally called "engrossing," is still used; because they have been long accustomed to it, and have not yet acquired a sufficient degree of taste, to perceive its inelegance.' p. xci.

The people in general are disgusted with this engrossing style; and it is only one of the many barbarisms to which we are subjected by the self-interest of a profession, established for the explanation of law.

The advantage of studying German, to obtain a complete knowledge of our own language, must strike every one who reads these essays. The basis of our language is German. The deviations in orthography and accentuation arise from the great mixture of French words, introduced at the Norman conquest. The reader of German will be at no loss in words of German origin; and if he joins to this knowledge that of the French language, he can find few difficulties in his own. We have not yet seen Adelung's English and German dictionary; but, from our acquaintance with his German dictionary, and the remarks in these essays, we are persuaded that it will be a very useful work to the English student.



*A Walk through Wales, in August 1797, by the Rev. Richard Warner, of Bath. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Dilly. 1798.*

A Tour in Wales is now fashionable; but we cannot say that the particular mode of travelling pursued by Mr. Warner is perfectly consistent with the ostentatious spirit of the age, or the ideas and manners of the *beau monde*. Pedestrian travellers are usually treated with contempt; though we allow that this is a treatment which they by no means deserve.

The volume contains eighteen letters; and, at the beginning of each, except the last, the progressive route is engraven on wood. A view of Tintern abbey, in *aqua tinta*, is prefixed to the work.

Having passed through Monmouthshire, Mr. Warner and his companion proceeded through the shires of Brecon and Radnor into that of Cardigan, where they were filled with admiration at the view of the charms of Hafod, the seat of colonel Johnes, and were strongly disposed to confirm the enthusiastic praises bestowed upon this spot by Mr. George Cumberland\*.

When our travellers had entered the shire of Merioneth, they hastened towards Cader-Idris, and began to ascend that lofty mountain.

‘We proceeded’ (says Mr. Warner) ‘to the Pen-yr-Cader, the highest peak of the mountain, passing on our left the saddle of the giant Idris, (from whom the mountain receives its name) an immense *cwm*, its bottom filled with a beautiful lake called Llyn-Cair, and its sides formed by perpendicular cliffs at least 1000 feet in height. Here we found the Alpine grasses, the *aira cæspitosa*, and the *poa Alpina*; beautiful masses of spar, specimens of pyritæ, and a stone much resembling that volcanic substance called pumice stone. We were now upon the apex of the second mountain in Wales, in point of height, and 2850 feet above the green, near the neighbouring town of Dolgelly.’ p. 98.

‘From the rude heap of adventitious stones which form what is called the bed of the giant, for several hundred yards, the mountain wears a singular appearance. Its surface is covered with a stream of rocky fragments of different magnitude, and lying in all directions, their shape for the most part columnar and quadrangular, and many being from three to seven feet in length. All of them bear the marks of attrition, and probably were thrown into their present rude, disjoined situation, by that great convulsion of

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\* See our XXth Vol. New Arr. p. 236.

nature, when "the fountains of the great deep were broken up, and the windows of heaven were opened." p. 99.

The romantic falls of the Cayne and the Mouddach, in the same county, are described with spirit; and, of a delightful scene of retirement, the following sketch is given.

'The beautiful vale of Festiniog spread itself to the eye, comprehending every object that can enrich or diversify a landscape. Noble mountains rising on every side, some thickly mantled with wood, others lifting their bare, rocky heads into the clouds. A meandering river rolling through extensive meads, which its fertilizing waters clothe with constant verdure. The picturesque chapel and neat cottages of Maentwrog, occupying the centre of the vale; and the elegant seat of Mr. Oakley, called Tan-y-Bwlch hall, with its noble woods decorating the declivity of a mountain on the northern side. Here, for the first time since we have been in North Wales, we were gratified in seeing the spirit of agricultural improvement exerted to some extent, and with considerably good effect. The vale of Festiniog consists in general of a soil rather mossy and spongy, the consequence of having formerly been always overflowed at spring tides. Aware of the injury which these inundations occasioned to the land, Mr. Oakley determined to prevent them by embankments. Having effected this, he next turned his attention to draining the ground thus secured, which he did so effectually as to render its produce just triple to what it hitherto had been. His large drains and neat embankments rather adorn than injure the picture; as the former are like small canals, and the latter have the appearance of raised terrace walks, surmounted with a neat white rail.' p. 115.

Our two pedestrians had too much curiosity to neglect an ascent of the mountain of Snowdon; but the weather was unfavourable for a survey. For a few minutes, however, they were indulged with a clear view from the summit. The prospect was 'not dissimilar to the view from Cader-Idris.'

They afterwards visited the town and castle of Caernarvon. The latter (says Mr. Warner)

'is unquestionably a fine specimen of ancient military architecture, but it does not produce those lively emotions in the mind, which edifices of this nature are apt to excite, from the circumstance of its being kept in nice repair, and inhabited. The idea of its high antiquity and ancient splendour is interrupted and destroyed by the patchwork of modern reparation, and the littleness of a cottager's domestic œconomy seen within its walls. Exclusive of this, it wants the fine circumstance of a mantle of ivy to relieve, and soften down the displeasing red tinge which it receives from the stone used in erecting it. Its towers are certainly very beautiful, being polygonal, and surmounted with light and elegant



turrets. The great entrance is equally striking, a lofty gateway under a stupendous tower, in the front of which appears a gigantic statue of the Conqueror, grasping in his right hand a dagger. The town is neat and cheerful, and not destitute of good houses. One very large and ancient edifice attracted our attention; it is called the *Plâs Mawr*, or great house, and appears to have been the residence of the lord of the manor. Two dates, in conspicuous plates, notify that it was built during the years 1590 and 1591; and, indeed, it affords a good specimen of the awkward style of architecture of that time, which was neither Gothic nor classical, but an heterogeneous mixture of both.' P. 137.

The attractions of Bangor our author extols, or rather exaggerates:

'We left Bangor with strong impressions in its favour, having never seen a place which united so many beauties in so narrow a circle; the sublime mountains of Caernarvonshire at a short distance from it; the picturesque scenery of its own immediate neighbourhood; and the ocean spreading its broad bosom within two miles of the town. Add to this, also, the important circumstance of its being one of the cheapest towns in the three kingdoms, and few others will appear to be so inviting and desirable for a residence as Bangor.' P. 143.

Corwen, through which he passed in his way to Llangollen, he represents 'as a small and *neat* town;' but, when we saw it, we did not observe any neatness in it. Dinas-bran hill is thus mentioned with its castle:

'We proceeded over the fields to Dinas-Bran Hill, which we ascended with considerable toil and some difficulty, as towards the top it becomes extremely steep. On the very crown of it are seen the ruins of its ancient castle, and surely never was a better spot chosen for an edifice of this kind. It is well contrasted with the situation of Valle-Crucis Abbey, which the castle overlooks and formerly protected; and both spots are such as bespeak the original designation of the buildings erected on them; the former for menace and hostility, the latter for meditation and prayer. The prospect from this elevation is grand, diversified, and beautiful, embracing every feature of landscape; mountain and valley, wood and village, river and rock; with the minuter ornaments of neat mansions and cultivated inclosures.' P. 170.

In the next letter, the persons, manners, and habits of the Welsh, are properly delineated; and the characteristic sketch is closed with these remarks.

'Both men and women are vivacious, cheerful, and intelligent, not exhibiting that appearance of torpor and dejection which characterize the labouring poor of our own country; their wants being

few, are easily supplied; a little milk, which their own mountain goat, or the benevolence of a neighbouring farmer, affords them, an oaten cake, and a few potatoes, furnish the only meal which they desire. Unvitiated by communication with polished life, they continue to think and act as nature dictates. Confined to their own mountains, they witness no scenes of profusion and extravagance to excite envy or malignity, by a comparison between their own penury and the abundance of others. They look round and see nothing but active industry and unrepining poverty, and are content.' p. 182.

From North-Wales Mr. Warner and his friend hastened into the counties of Salop and Hereford; and, after amusing themselves with a survey of the beauties of the Wye, they returned to Bath, having walked 463 miles in eighteen days.

These letters are amusing; the style is in general neat; and, though many of the observations are trite, the volume may prove useful to future rambles in Wales.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### P O L I T I C S, &c.

*Proposal of a Substitute for Funding in Time of War. Addressed to the Right Honorable William Pitt, Chancellor of the Exchequer, &c. &c. &c. By John Prinsep, Merchant. 8vo. 2s. Debrett. 1797.*

THE plan here recommended is not entirely novel, as a similar expedient has been practised in India with success. It is proposed by Mr. Prinsep, that, after a fixed day, there shall be issued 'one only description of government paper,' called bills or notes of confederation, bearing an interest of five per cent. payable half-yearly at the bank; that these bills shall be registered according to the priority of their creation; and that, from the appointed day, government shall make, with very few exceptions, no payments in cash or bank-notes. The money, accruing in the mean time, shall be applied to the monthly discharge of the confederation bills; and, until the complete payment of these notes, government must not issue any other kind of debenture or obligation, alter the interest of money or the premium on the bills, negotiate any new loan, or add to the funded debt of Great-Britain. Monthly accounts of the bills paid off are to be printed; and the king, with the consent of three-fourths of his privy-council and some other persons, in case of invasion, or a dread of invasion, may oblige



the bank, the East-India company, and other corporate bodies, to make their dividends in confederation paper, which they will receive for cash from government. At the conclusion of peace, the bills shall be entitled to subscription into the consolidated fund of three per cent. at the medium price of that stock on the day of ratification.

There is some merit in this plan: but we tremble at the author's suggestions on the delicacy of his financial instrument. It would, he thinks, have an admirable effect,

' provided no convulsion happen in the kingdom—that no corrupt influence be suffered to invade the sacred pledge held out to the world; no partial payment or misappropriation of the money. One false step of this nature, and all is over. This immense machine will submit to regulation and may be governed, like a steam-engine or a cotton-mill, by a dial or a barometer, but if abruptly checked in its progress or foiled in its mechanism, the whole goes to pieces in a moment. The crash would be fatal.' p. 50.

Having seen the fate of the assignats in France, we are not without similar apprehensions from the increase of paper currency in this island.

*A Reply to some Parts of the Bishop of Landaff's Address to the People of Great-Britain. By Gilbert Wakefield, B. A. The Third Edition. 8vo. 1s. Sold by the Author, at Hackney. 1798.*

We merely announce this edition for the purpose of informing our readers, that the original reply has received some additions, and sustained some alterations and retrenchments, calculated to render it less offensive to the ruling powers.

*Sound an Alarm to all the Inhabitants of Great Britain, from the least to the greatest; by Way of Appendix to "Reform or Ruin." 8vo. 1s. Wright. 1798.*

This writer is of opinion, that the intemperance of some of the adversaries of the court first deprived them of the confidence of the nation, and that political reform has been, with others, a pretence for revolutions of a sweeping nature. In speaking of the character and public services of Mr. Fox, he is not only severe, but illiberal and unjust. The life of that gentleman has certainly not passed without political errors; but his name is not to be mentioned with contempt. He has been uniformly hostile to the principle and conduct of this war, as a friend to the country to which he thought it would be ruinous; and for this the authors and supporters of the war may hold him in abhorrence; but they have no reason to despise him, nor can they express contempt in words that will for a moment gain credit.

The reform for which this author chiefly contends, is that of individuals; and we agree with him that it would supersede the

necessity of all other reform; but it would at the same time render government in a great measure unnecessary; neither oaths nor laws would be requisite, if every member of society would reform his principles and practices: at least the multiplication of penalties would be unnecessary; wars would cease, and we should need no barriers against political corruption. To promote this happy order of things, our author concludes his pamphlet with a prayer, to every part of which we cordially assent.

*Sound an Alarm: abridged.* 12mo. 3d. Wright. 1798.

In this abridgment, the most reprehensible part (the unqualified abuse of the opposition) is omitted; and the conduct of the French towards the Italian states affords the author a more successful occasion for *sounding an alarm*.

*Plain Truth, addressed to the Tars of Old England. Dedicated to Admiral Goodall, by one of themselves. Second Edition, with an Appendix.* 8vo. 1s. Longman. 1798.

This author exhibits to his brother-tars such a picture of French politics as may animate them against the enemy, and all who may support republican schemes in this country. Like other alarmists, he combines the opposition in parliament with a French party, without regard to truth or decency. In the conclusion, his words are, 'Check not, my fellow-seamen, that dreadful execution which accompanies your intrepidity and *coolness*—give full scope to your revenge, and *make no prisoners* to cherish rebellion and the flames of this most disastrous war.' This advice, borrowed from a decree of Robespierre, is sufficient to convince us that the writer of this pamphlet has assumed the name of a *British tar* in order to disgrace it.

*Matter of Fact for the Multitude. By a True Patriot.* 8vo. 6d. Wright. 1798.

Here we have another persuasion to union and energy against the invading foe, supported by a reference to the conduct of the French in every country where their arms or principles have prevailed, and to the supposed machinations of a party among ourselves, whose views are represented as hostile to our constitution in church and state. So much has lately been advanced on these topics by ministerial writers, that it would be fastidious to expect novelty of argument, and absurd to expect temperance of language. The conduct of the French, we believe, cannot meet with a serious vindicator; yet those who would impute to the leading members of the Whig Club a design of co-operation with them, are, not less than our open foes, enemies to the peace and union of the country. The calumny is most foul; and, if it should produce irritation, the propagators of it are answerable for all the consequences.



*A Letter most humbly and respectfully addressed to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, upon the present State of Ireland, &c. with Strictures upon Catholic Emancipation, &c. most earnestly supplicating his Royal Highness's serious Perusal and Interference upon the Subject.* 8vo. 2s. Cawthorn. 1798.

This dispassionate review of the history of Ireland from the commencement of the present reign, throws much light upon the origin of those parties and principles which have at various times prevailed in that country. While the writer, however, exposes without reserve the acts of unconstitutional policy which have been introduced, and the rise and progress of a system of gross corruption; and while he advises the court to place the trade of Ireland upon a reciprocity with Great-Britain, to do away *her trade of parliament*, and to give her the enjoyment of the constitution which she had in 1782; he is a decided enemy to any farther emancipation of the catholics; for which opinion he offers some reasons that are valid, and others that are not so.

Although this pamphlet was written when danger impended, we recommend the perusal of it to every person who wishes to discover the real origin of the rebellion, where only it can be found, in events that have long been very improperly consigned to oblivion. What has happened since the publication of it does not render it useless in this respect. Whatever set of men project the full pacification of Ireland, must study the genius of the people as it showed itself in the tumultuous assemblies from 1769 to 1774, and in the volunteer associations from 1778 to 1784. A wise physician will not boast of the efficacy of his medicines, until he has informed himself of the habits and constitution of his patient.

*The Speech of the Right Honourable John, Earl of Clare, Lord High Chancellor of Ireland, in the House of Lords of Ireland, on a Motion made by the Earl of Moira, Monday, Feb. 19, 1798, "That an humble Address be presented to his Excellency the Lord Lieutenant, to state, that as Parliament had confided to his Excellency extraordinary Powers in order to support the Laws and defeat traiterous Combinations in this Country, we feel it our Duty—as those Powers have not produced the desired Effect—to recommend the Adoption of such conciliatory Measures as may allay Apprehensions and Discontent."* By Authority. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. 1798.

In this speech the lord chancellor considers the motion of the earl of Moira as unnecessary, and as founded on erroneous data; and he argues (unfortunately with too much success, as the events proved) for the existence of a conspiracy which could not be prevented by any lenient measures on the part of government. Subsequent occurrences have rendered this speech less interesting; but it may still be regarded as an able vindication of all the preceding measures of the Irish cabinet, and a full explanation of the system

of the court, although it precludes no person from tracing, in a more satisfactory manner, the remote causes of the rebellion, and inquiring whether lenity might not have been adopted at some early period, before the disaffected became desperate.

*Speech of R. Goodloe Harper, Esq. on the Foreign Intercourse Bill; delivered in the House of Representatives of the United States, on Friday, March 2, 1798. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wright. 1798.*

The politics of America gradually acquire importance in our island. The dispute with France, and the existence of an English and a French party in America, are circumstances which render it necessary for us to be acquainted with the origin and state of public opinions in that country; and this, we presume, may be offered as an apology for the publication of a very long speech, with the immediate subject of which we have little concern.

Mr. Harper imputes, to certain persons in high station, an intention of sacrificing the independence of America to the ambition of the French directory; and, being convinced that such a conspiracy is in agitation, he exposes its treachery with much zeal and argument. In the study of American factions, this speech will be found useful; and we may add, that it is recommended by an easy flow of eloquence.

#### M E D I C I N E, &c.

*An Experimental Essay on the Manner in which Opium acts on the living Animal Body. By Alexander Philip Wilson, M. D. &c. &c. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Johnson.*

The experiments of physiologists have not, in general, led to satisfactory conclusions. Such as have been made with a view to the elucidation of the mode in which different substances operate on the living system, have been peculiarly liable to objection. The subject has therefore remained in a state of great uncertainty; and we are apprehensive that, notwithstanding the experimental torture practised by Mr. Wilson on frogs and other animals, there is still much room for doubt and conjecture.

Dissatisfied with the opinions which writers have formed of the action of opium on animals, Dr. Wilson has here presented the public with experiments which contradict former conclusions, and seem to afford a very simple account of the *modus operandi* of this drug. But, if his accuracy of deduction depends only on the frequent repetition of his experiments, we cannot fully rely upon it. They should not only have been very frequent, but should have been varied in different ways, instead of being confined to one or two classes of animals. They should also have been made under different circumstances, with regard to the excitability of the animals.



We cannot take notice of all the experiments; but we may state the general inferences that are drawn from them. From the first set, the author concludes, that opium applied to the heart is not capable of affecting any distant part through the medium of the nervous system; and from some others, that the diminished frequency of the motion of the heart, soon observed on throwing a solution of opium into the cavity of the abdomen, does not proceed from any action of the opium on this organ through the medium of the nervous system, but from the great interruption which it gives to the circulation in nearly one third of the whole animal. He also finds, that the effect of opium, when it acts on the nerves of the part to which it is applied, is merely that of inducing a general languor, which, if the quantity applied be considerable, terminates in death.

Of the effects of opium on the living body, he forms a three-fold division, comprehending, 1. its action on the nerves, not essentially different from any other topical irritation; 2. its effects on the heart and blood-vessels; such as increasing their action when it is applied in small quantities, and that of impairing, or altogether destroying, their power of action, when it is used more freely; 3. its effects when it is immediately applied to the brain itself.

*Dissertation on the Chemical and Medical Properties of the Bristol Hotwell Water. To which are added Practical Observations on the Prevention and Treatment of Pulmonary Consumption. By A. Carrick, M. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1797.*

The chemical analysis of the water in question is executed with judgment, so far as it goes; but, to have rendered it complete and satisfactory, the author should have carried his examinations farther, and repeated some of them more frequently.

Of the medicinal properties of this water, we are not enabled to form any conclusive opinion from the summary mode in which the subject is considered. We have not met with any observation in this part of the pamphlet, that has a greater claim to novelty than this—that the hot-wells afford the best winter retreat for consumptive and other invalids.

In the practical observations on the prevention and treatment of pulmonary consumption, we have not more novelty. The doctor beats the usual round, without starting a new opinion, or offering a new remedy to the consideration of the reader.

Of the use of aërial remedies, he says little; and his remarks upon them are not calculated to impress us with high expectations of their utility.

*Essays, Physiological and Philosophical, on the Distortion of the Spine, the Motive Power of Animals, the Fallacy of the Senses, and the Properties of Matter. By C. H. Wilkinson, Surgeon, &c. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Law. 1798.*

In the first essay, Mr. Wilkinson (for the use of the uninformed)  
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determines, by some pages of algebraical calculation, the centres of gravity and motion in the spine; and, having urged some objections to the bandages now employed to prevent or correct its deformities, he adopts this conclusion, that the support should be applied immediately under the centre of gravity of that part of the spine which is above the curvature. But how is this desideratum to be accomplished? The writer hopes, 'that hereafter he shall have an opportunity of giving representations of the different instruments that he may experience the most beneficial.' Perhaps it might have been better, had he postponed to that time the publication of this essay.

The second essay treats of the mechanism of animals, as adapting them for motion. M. St. Bel, the first professor of the Veterinary College, remarked, that if all the joints in the fore and hind leg of a well-formed horse were put to their utmost extent of motion, the feet would describe segments of circles, the diameters of which would be the same.

This observation seems to account for the coincidence of the feet in the same track, during the progression of a well-formed horse. Mr. Wilkinson doubts the truth of this remark, and denies it as far as it relates to Eclipse, whose joints he measured. Observations directed to this point cannot be well made upon the skeleton of a horse. The extent of motion which a joint appears to admit, being in a considerable degree restricted by its ligaments, it seems almost impossible to determine the extent of motion of the fore-leg of a horse, as the scapula is moveable, and as the least variation in the motion of the shoulder-joint must occasion a great difference in that of the foot. Perhaps no considerable advantage can be derived from inquiries of this nature, as the power and speed of horses must greatly depend on the strength and mobility of their muscles.

The third essay relates to the fallacy of the senses; and the fourth, to the properties of matter. These two essays appear to contain the opinions of different authors upon various subjects, which are strangely jumbled together; and we cannot distinguish in them any thing important, which properly belongs to their reputed author.

## R E L I G I O N.

*An Apology for Brotherly Love, and for the Doctrines of the Church of England, in a Series of Letters to the Rev. Charles Daubeny, with a Vindication of such Parts of Mr. Wilberforce's Practical View, as have been objected to by Mr. Daubeny, in his late Publication, entitled A Guide to the Church. Also, some Remarks on Mr. Daubeny's Conduct in bringing a false Quotation from a Pamphlet, entitled Five Letters to the Rev. Mr. Fletcher, written by Sir Richard Hill, in the Year 1771. To which is annexed, a Sermon, by Bishop Babington. By Sir Richard Hill, Bart. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.*

Sir Richard Hill repeatedly assures us, that he is a member of



the church of England; but the inference which he draws from a comparison of the articles with some opinions of his adversary, is a dangerous weapon against himself.

'I am lothe to say which of these two disputants may be in the right; therefore shall leave it to the reader to decide the controversy between them: it is certain, however, that one of them must be a maintainer of false doctrine. If the articles be erroneous, they ought not to be retained in the church; if Mr. Daubeny be the delinquent, is he not an impugner of the established religion, as set forth in the book of Common Prayer; and therefore, by the fifth canon, if ecclesiastical discipline were to be put into execution, liable to be *ipso facto* excommunicated, and not restored but by the archbishop, upon his repentance, and public revocation of his wicked errors?' P. 97.

There are two things by which a person becomes member of a church—the belief of its doctrines, and a conformity to its discipline. On the doctrines of the church, there may be, and have been, differences of opinion among its members; some interpreting the articles in the rigid Calvinistic sense, the other according to the Arminian theories. Who is to decide between them? Not the writer of the present work, though he boldly undertakes to settle the dispute.—With regard to the other point, the discipline of the church, he is not the fairest of disputants. He who so freely censures the conduct of a great part of its clergy, who affects to have so strong a zeal for its interests, who admires its discipline and the form of its establishment, writes not with a view of showing its superiority over all other churches, but of exciting doubts respecting the authority of its officers. The Catholics, we know, attacked the church on the validity of its ordinations: the attack came from an enemy; but what should we have said if the defenders of its cause had joined in the cry with them, and amused themselves with all the tales of the Nag's-head Tavern? Thus our writer cavils at some points in the life of archbishop Secker; and, in his eccentric career, he supports an argument, which no true son of the church would think himself bound to defend.

'Besides the schismatical gaps, which have been opened in the episcopal fence, it is to be feared, that some few of the supreme heads of the church have not escaped contamination; as I believe we have had three monarchs on the British throne, who received baptism from the hands of Dissenters in Scotland, Holland, and Germany. Now, therefore, it might certainly afford much matter for discussion, how far these schismatical heads had a right to issue out their *congées d'elire*: and secondly, how far a dean and chapter had a right to elect a diocesan upon such a recommendation.' P. 19.

Not content with this mode of proving his zeal for the church, he is full of his praises of men out of the establishment, who have

not been ordained, who preach in conventicles, and whose preachings he affects to attend with the greatest delight.

This pamphlet may amuse some readers; but it will not gratify the moderate and well-disposed.

*An Essay on the Character of the Apostles and Evangelists: designed to prove that they were not Enthusiasts; containing the Substance of several Discourses, delivered in the Chapel of Trinity-College, Dublin, by the Rev. Richard Graves, B. D. &c. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Dilly. 1798.*

To distinguish between enthusiasm and inspiration is the great object of this work. Infidels consider as enthusiasts those persons whom we believe to have been inspired by God; and they rank, under the same standard, the reveries of a Brothers, the fanaticism of a Mohammed, and the calm unassuming dignity of our Saviour. With such persons it is useless to argue. They cannot believe that God has ever made a revelation to mankind; and consequently they will not attend to the distinctions which we make between real inspiration and the mere pretence of it. But to Christians, as well as to those who believe in a false revelation, the question stands otherwise. We declare, that our faith is built on a rock that cannot be shaken; that our guides would not, and could not, deceive us. Hence it is necessary that we should lay down certain marks, to distinguish the enthusiast from the inspired person; and, subjecting the conduct of the heads of the different sects to these tests, we must determine, by a fair examination of their doctrines and actions, whether we ought to be guided by them in affairs of religion.

It is not difficult to ascertain the character of an enthusiast; for each sect makes the distinction with ease, when the character of his chief is not called in question. Thus the mad gestures of the Sibyl, the whirling dance of the dervise, the tortures of the Faquirs, are by all Christians justly ascribed to enthusiasm; but the disciples of Loyola and Bruno, the devotees of the cloisters, or the hermitage, will, from their own practice or the legends of their saints, be fearful of attributing to the real cause the effects of superstition.

The grounds which the apostles had for their belief, their mode of communicating it to others, their conduct, their morality, and their speculative doctrines, are examined by Mr. Graves with candour and judgment; and, upon the question of morality, he sums up the whole in a manner which appears to us unanswerable.

‘ I have considered a few, and but a few, of those characters of Christian morality, in which it is most strongly and directly contrasted with enthusiasm. Let me now entreat my reader to reflect for a moment, who were the men who possessed this wisdom, and whence did they acquire it? Were they the philosophic sages of Greece and Rome? No. Were they politic and experienced



legislators and senators? No. Were they in the Jewish nation the wise and learned doctors of the law? No—a Jewish peasant, the reputed son of a carpenter, and who for thirty years had resided with a private and obscure family, calls together twelve tax-gatherers and fishermen; they become distracted with fanaticism, and the system we have examined, is formed of the ravings of these fanatics collected and preserved:—but there was among them one learned, educated man, St. Paul; he, perhaps it may be said, connected this admirable system of purity and brotherly love. We admit the learning and the talents of the apostle to the Gentiles; but let us not forget what we have already observed, that his natural temper was impetuous and warm, and that his education, added to his knowledge of heathen literature the doctrine and traditions of the Pharisees; he was educated in their habits of pride, and bigotry, and intolerance; while in his sober-reason he was himself a bigot, and a persecutor even unto death: but he was suddenly hurried away, as the objector would suppose, by the frenzy of enthusiasm, and from that moment he became peaceable and gentle, merciful, liberal and tolerant. Gracious God! will men believe all this, and yet persevere to ridicule others for blind, irrational, implicit faith? No. Let us not judge hardly of those who differ from us; but if they judge unfairly of our cause, of the cause of Christianity and benevolence, let us not, as we value truth and piety, let us not yield lightly to their rash opinion. Surely if these characters belong to the morality of the gospel, and are compared with the natural disadvantages under which its teachers laboured, they plainly bespeak a divine original.' P. 245.

As the work reflects credit on the abilities and piety of the writer, we recommend it with confidence to our readers.

*Sermons: chiefly upon Practical Subjects. By the Rev. Samuel Bishop, A. M. &c. Published by Thomas Clare, A. M. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.*

The poetical productions of this writer are well known; and, if his fame is not increased by this posthumous work, his numerous friends will be pleased with these specimens of merit in his profession. For the character of the sermons we will transcribe the account given of them by his intimate friend the editor; and we will not detract, by any fastidious remarks, from those praises which, while some may think them extravagant, may appear to others to be bestowed with commendable partiality.

'The sermons, which are now published, it is hoped, will in no degree diminish his justly acquired reputation. They are plain and practical; they contain just and pious sentiments, expressed in a manly and forcible style; and they breathe the genuine spirit of candour and Christian charity. That they proceeded from settled conviction in their author of the truth of the gospel, I can assert from my own knowledge:—if they contribute to the establishment

of others in the faith of Christ,—to the increase of meekness and benevolence,—and to the advancement of religion and holiness,—the principal object of their publication will be accomplished.

‘ The reader will probably notice in them a peculiar turn of thought; and, in some instances perhaps, a singular mode of expression. Mr. Bishop’s conversation and writings were all marked by a certain character,—that character which distinguishes native genius! It is the charm and excellence of his poems,—how far it may appear pleasing or otherwise in his prose, the public will determine.—As a specimen of his manner, where he aimed at impressive conciseness, it may be agreeable to the reader to see the following lines, written in a copy of the book of Common Prayer presented by him to his daughter.

‘ MY DEAR MARY,

Consult, Your understanding for your belief;  
Your belief for your conscience;  
Your conscience for your duty;  
Your duty for your devotion; and  
Your devotion for your comfort:

So help you God,  
The contents of this book,  
And the daily prayers of  
Your affectionate father,

SAMUEL BISHOP.’ P. XI.

*Calmet’s Great Dictionary of the Holy Bible: Historical, Critical, Geographical, and Etymological: wherein are explained all the proper Names in the Old and New Testament, &c. &c. With an entirely new Set of Plates, Explanatory, Illustrative, and Ornamental; under the Direction of C. Taylor. 4to. Parts I. II. III. 5s. each. Taylor. 1797.*

This is a very useful publication. The original is too well known to render any account of it necessary in this place; but it is proper to observe, that the alterations and improvements of it are executed with judgment and spirit. With regard to the embellishments, those plates which illustrate the customs of the east are more pleasingly ornamental than the allegorical representations of faith, mercy, and other attributes or qualities.

*Advice to a Student in the University, concerning the Qualifications and Duties of a Minister of the Gospel in the Church of England. By John Napleton, D. D. &c. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Rivingtons.*

The students of the university destined for holy orders, who read over this work with attention, and follow the rules prescribed in it, will find their advantage not only at the time of their examination by an episcopal chaplain, but in a course of judicious study for the remainder of their lives. The books recommended are in general well selected: but we were surprised at not finding in the



list the works of the bishops Law and Watson, and of archdeacon Paley; for, as the whole collection may be too expensive for most students, the theological tracts published by Dr. Watson might advantageously supply the deficiency. But this is a slight blemish in a production which evinces no small share of judgment and piety.

## P H I L O L O G Y.

*A Grammar of the French Tongue, wherein the Rules are particularly adapted to the Genius of the English Language. By the Abbé Henry, French Master at the Seminary in Ramsbury, Wilts. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Parsons.*

This writer does not profess to give a complete course of rules for learning the French language; his aim is to confine himself to those points in which its syntax differs from the English modes of construction. This plan is calculated to diminish the labour of the student; and, for that reason, it is worthy of recommendation.

The substance of this work was *written* for the use of M. Henry's pupils; but, as he thought that it might also be useful to others, he resolved to *print* it. In executing this determination, however, he did not give himself sufficient time for correction. Upon this point he observes, that 'the fatigue and loss of time he heretofore sustained will, it is hoped, be deemed sufficient apologies' for the imperfections of the work. The fatigue to which he alludes was that of giving lessons to his pupils 'in his own handwriting.' But his eagerness to relieve himself from this fatigue ought to have given way to a prudent regard for his own reputation, and a due respect for the public.

He adopts the unnecessary distinction of the *partitive article*; but *du, de la, and des*, which he includes under this designation, are merely combinations of the preposition *de* with the definite article. He makes another superfluous distinction, when he speaks of the possessive pronouns. They 'are of two sorts (he says); the *absolute*, which are always followed by the substantive to which they relate; as, *my, thy, his, &c.* and the *relative*, which are followed by no substantive, but relate to one before mentioned; as, *mine, &c.*' Other idle remarks occasionally take place of more important intelligence: but, upon the whole, the work is not badly executed with regard to the rules of French idiom and construction, though the English style is despicable.

*Discours sur l'Article; composé pour l'Ecole des Messieurs Strahans à Enfield. Par M. l'Abbé de Lévizac.*

*A Discourse upon the Article; written for the Use of an Academy at Enfield. 8vo. 1s. Dulau. 1797.*

The abbé does not profess to throw any new light on the use of the article from his own sagacity of observation, but has merely

endeavoured to place in a strong point of view the opinions of the most celebrated French grammarians on this subject.

From the pompous exordium of this pamphlet, a person would suppose that it treated of an affair of extraordinary moment and of the most interesting consequence. Having mentioned the darkness which prevailed for ages—darkness so much the more difficult to be dispelled, because it was mistaken even for the light of truth—he proceeds to observe, that ‘at length reason, so long obscured by ignorance and prejudice, triumphed over all obstacles; it penetrated into every part; and its lively and brilliant rays were diffused over the literary world.’ Would any reader imagine, that this great effulgence and this signal triumph of reason referred to the mere elucidation of the nature of the French *article*?

Our author accuses Vaugelas, Chapelain, la-Mothe-le-Vayer, and T. Corneille, of having disseminated, with regard to this part of speech, ‘the most vague, obscure, and false notions.’ The opinions of the Port-Royal grammarians were less erroneous; but La-Touche, not content with the two species of articles which they admitted, extended the number to five; a distribution which, being adopted by many eminent persons, long prevailed. About the middle of this century, however, that system was exploded; and it was agreed among all philologists of reputation (says this writer) that *le* was the only article in the French language. *Un* seems also to claim that designation; but the abbé maintains, that it is an adjective, as, though it does not indicate the real quality of an object, it tends to ‘particularise, individualise, and modify’ it. It bears, indeed, some resemblance to an adjective, though it differs from the usual acceptation of that part of speech.

This essay is well written; and the modes of using *le* and its derivatives are properly illustrated by examples.

*A Dictionary of Quotations, in most frequent Use. Taken from the Greek, Latin, French, Spanish, and Italian Languages; translated into English. With Illustrations Historical and Idiomatic. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Robinsons. 1797.*

This work, we think, will prove highly acceptable to unlearned readers, as it will remove many obstacles which perplex them in their course of reading. It not only contains quotations of a general nature, but also a variety of law phrases. Some of the articles are unnecessarily introduced; and, on the other hand, there are some omissions of what might have been useful. The incidental remarks are sometimes satirical, but generally just; and the translations, with some exceptions, are accurate.

It will be proper to give some specimens of the mode of explanation.

‘*Ars est celare artem.* Lat.—“The art is to conceal the art.”—In every practical science, as in painting or acting, for instance,



the greatest effort of the artist is to conceal from the spectator the means by which the effect is produced.'

'*Audentes fortuna juvat.* Lat. Virgil.—"Fortune assists the bold."—Intrepidity will generally ensure success.'

'*Boni pastoris est tondere pecus, non deglubere.* Lat. Suetonius.—"It is the part of a good shepherd to shear his flock but not to flea them."—This is a political maxim now grown out of use. The best minister at present is the man who can extort the most money, not he who imposes the least burdens on the people.'

'*Cui bono.* Lat.—"To what good" *sc.* will it tend? What is to be the advantage resulting from the measure which you propose?'

'*Guerre à mort.* Fr.—War 'till death.

'*Guerre à l'outrance.* Fr.—War to the uttermost.—Two phrases which it is to be hoped posterity will remember only as having disgraced the close of the 18th century.'

'*Vi et armis.* Lat.—"By force and arms."—By a force not sanctioned by law. By main force.'

'*Virtus laudatur et alget.* Lat. Juvenal.—"Virtue is praised and freezes."—Every virtuous effect is viewed with cold admiration, and met only with sullen neglect.'

From these extracts the reader may judge of the utility of this dictionary. The compiler merits the thanks of such as have learned little, and of those who have, in a great measure, forgotten the instructions of their youth.

## P O E T R Y.

*Select Epigrams.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Boards. Lunn. 1797.

What a host of labourers we have in the epigrammatic vineyard, and how scanty is the vintage! To compose a perfect epigram, a piece of *merum sal*, has been long acknowledged to be a work of great difficulty: but many good pieces of this kind have been produced. The collection which now lies under our critical animadversion, is not without its merit; and, to some of the epigrams, the world has given its applause.

The following, written by lord Nugent, are lively and pointed.

'I lov'd thee beautiful and kind,  
And plighted an eternal vow;

So alter'd are thy face and mind,

'Twere perjury to love thee now.' Vol. i. p. 119.

' Tom thought a wild profusion great,  
And therefore spent his whole estate :  
Will thinks the wealthy are ador'd,  
And gleans what misers blush to hoard.  
Their passion, merit, fate, the same,  
They thirst and starve alike for fame.' Vol. i. p. 124.

The *jeu d'esprit* by Dr. Garth, on Gay's poems, deserves transcription.

' ON MR. GAY'S POEMS. BY SIR SAMUEL GARTH.

' When fame did o'er the spacious plains  
The lays she once had learn'd repeat,  
All listen'd to the tuneful strains,  
And wonder'd who could sing so sweet.

'Twas thus :—the Graces held the lyre,  
' Th' harmonious frame the Muses strung,  
The loves and smiles compos'd the choir,  
And Gay transcrib'd what Phœbus sung.'

Vol. i. p. 11.

Speaking our real sentiments of the English and French epigrammatists, we announce the balance to be considerably in favour of the English. The French epigrams, in general, want simplicity; they are too laboured, too affected;—a fault which is indeed observable in most of their literary compositions; and what they are pleased to term a *rich rhyme*, insufferable in English versification, is considered as a striking beauty, and a fair substitute for wit and sentiment. Upon the whole, we recommend this little *bouquet*, as containing many flowers of an agreeable odour.

*Lorenzino di Medici, and other Poems.* 12mo. 3s. Cadell and Davies. 1797.

The coldness, the imbecillity, the *numeri lege soluti* of this poem, would discredit even the powers of a boarding-school miss; and, indeed, it seems more like a task performed during the holidays by one of the young ladies, than the work of an author who seems to think that he possesses the *os magna sonaturum*. A more spiritless composition we have seldom seen. A subject, which should have called forth the *muse of fire*, has produced a garrulous and paralytic *old woman* to tell the tale! The author has subjoined some sonnets which are remarkably insipid, with an exception of one, which we shall select to prove our impartiality, and, at the same time, the truth of a satirical line of Dr. Young—

' Ev'n dullness sometimes blunders on vivacities.'

' Laura, full oft in childhood's early day  
I led thee, playful, through the verdant mead;—  
Full oft for thee I tun'd my infant lay,  
And twin'd the myrtle-garland for thy head.



In vain, my gentle girl, thy play-mates strove  
 With guileless art my youthful love to gain;  
 In vain for me the myrtle wreath they wove,  
 For me they run'd the song of praise in vain.

And could'st thou think that friendship steel'd my breast,  
 And bade me careless hear each virgin sigh,  
 That robb'd my bosom of its wonted rest,  
 That gave a speaking lustre to my eye?

No, Laura, it was love—That love sincere,  
 Which owns thy influence in this silent tear.' p. 99.

Nevertheless, in justice to the severity of our censure, we deem ourselves obliged to give the last sonnet in the volume, which, for the honour of poetry, we hope will be *the last*.

' Deep glow'd the mountain top with golden day,  
 My Laura past me with indignant feet.  
 Swift I pursued, my mistress dear to greet,  
 Who chid in angry mood my long delay.

She had a right to chide. But well I knew  
 Her tranquil nature could not long refrain  
 From peace and joy. I led her to the plain,  
 The plain which glisten'd with the night-fall'n dew.

I from her slipper wip'd the damps away,  
 I spread her kerchief o'er yon rugged seat,  
 Placing my own beneath her gentle feet,  
 To screen them from the cold and chilling clay,  
 While she her white arm on my shoulder laid,  
 And with a grateful lip my care repaid.' p. 104.

*The Vision; a Poem on the Union of Russia and Prussia against Poland; with other Pieces, the Effusions of a Young Mind.*  
 8vo. 4s. Boards. Dilly. 1797.

In the preface to these poems, the author intimates, that they 'were written at an early period of life, that they were mostly the offspring of the moment, and that if they are defective in regularity of composition and harmony of numbers, he has only to say, that he did not conceive them to possess sufficient merit to justify him in neglecting pursuits of a higher and more important nature, for the flowery paths of poetical studies.'

The poems discover powers capable of improvement; but the person who deems any pursuit higher and more important than poetry, will, perhaps, never excel in this branch of literature. The subjects are not happily chosen; there is little novelty of imagery or idea; but the lines are as good as 'the effusions of a young mind' can be expected to be. We select the conclusion of the *Vision*.

' The prophet vanish'd :—when from pole to pole  
 On iron wheels the rattling thunders roll;

In mountain waves, the sea upheaving stood,  
 And lightnings glanc'd along the briny flood ;  
 Now all the concave vault of heaven was light ;  
 Now wrapt in thick impenetrable night :  
 The clash of arms was heard along the main,  
 And shrieks of ghosts which dragg'd the clanking chain ;  
 A sudden trembling shook th' astonish'd earth,  
 And hell seem'd struggling for a second birth ;  
 Then strong imagination 'gan pourtray  
 Shapes, which alone might horror's self dismay ;  
 The ministers of life, from every part,  
 Retreated to their citadel, the heart :  
 Each hair, by terror stiffen'd, rose aghast,  
 Till from my swimming eyes creation pass'd ;  
 Fainting, I sunk : nor thought again to rise,  
 Till the archangel's trump should rend the skies :  
 There long I lay—till dawn'd the blush of morn,  
 Again I seem'd to life and pleasure born :  
 Sweet was the breath of the refreshing breeze ;  
 Sweet the grey mists still brooding o'er the seas ;  
 Bewilder'd memory all around forgot ;  
 I rose, and musing, sought my rustick cot.' P. 20.

In a note to the Runic poem, the author confounds the Goths with the Celts ; an error which, we hoped, had been completely exploded in this country.

*Poems, by the Rev. Gerald Fitz-Gerald, D. D. &c. Now first collected in one Volume, revised and improved by the Author. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.*

This is merely a republication of poems in a more convenient and correct form.

#### D R A M A.

*The Stranger ; or Misanthropy and Repentance : a Drama in Five Acts. Faithfully translated, entire, from the German of Augustus Von Kotzebue, Director of the Imperial Theatre at Vienna. By George Papendick, Sub-Librarian to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Wingrave. 1798.*

*The Stranger : a Comedy ; freely translated from Kotzebue's German Comedy of Misanthropy and Repentance. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly. 1798.*

The misanthropy of an injured husband, the wretchedness of a penitent wife, and their ultimate reconciliation, form the subject of this interesting play, so deservedly popular. In giving it this praise, however, we must observe that the comic part of it is truly despicable. Kotzebue is strangely unequal ; it is astonishing that the author of *Benyowsky* \* could have stooped to such absurdity.

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\* See p. 157.



We extract part of the last scene from the former of these translations.

‘ *Eulalia.* [*In great emotion.*] Fully sensible that I had become unworthy of your name, I have these three years past assumed another, under which I could not be known. You must have a letter of divorce, which will enable you to chuse a worthier wife, in whose arms may God dispense his choicest blessings on you. To that end this paper [*Takes out a folded paper.*] will be necessary. It contains a written confession of my crimes. [*She gives it him with a trembling hand.*]

‘ *Meinau.* [*Takes and tears it.*] Be it for ever cancelled! No, Eulalia, you alone have reigned within my heart, and—I am not ashamed to own it—you will reign there for ever. Your own sense of honour and virtue forbids you to take advantage of this weakness—But never could another wife be to me dear as Eulalia.

‘ *Eulalia.* [*Tremulous.*] Well then, it only now remains for me to take my leave.

‘ *Meinau.* Stay; yet a moment stay. We have for some months lived very near together without knowing it. I have heard much good of you. You have a heart filled with sympathy for the misery of your poor fellow-creatures. I am glad of that. You must never want the means of obeying the dictates of such a heart; and above all, you must never know want yourself. This paper secures you an income of five hundred a year, which my banker will pay at such periods as may be most convenient to yourself.

‘ *Eulalia.* Never. The labour of my hands shall maintain me. A morsel of bread moistened with a repentant tear will more secure my peace, than the consciousness that I am idly battenning on the fortune of a man, whose honour I have polluted, and whose happiness I have destroyed.

‘ *Meinau.* Madam, take it, I beseech you.

‘ *Eulalia.* I have deserved this humiliation. But to your generosity I appeal. Spare me this painful moment.

‘ *Meinau.* [*Aside.*] God, God! of what a wife has that villain deprived me! [*Puts the paper in his pocket*] Well, madam! I respect your sentiments of delicacy, and withdraw my request; but on this condition only, that if ever you should require assistance, I may be the first and only person to whom you shall apply: ay, frankly apply.

‘ *Eulalia.* I promise.

‘ *Meinau.* And now I may confidently entreat you to take back what is your own, your jewels. [*Tenders her a small case.*]

‘ *Eulalia.* [*Much moved, takes and opens it; her tears fall on it.*] Ah, to my weeping eyes this case recalls the evening on which you presented me with this brilliant knot. It was that very evening when my father joined our hands together, and when with rapture I pronounced the vow of endless faith. That vow is broken. At

that time my heart was spotless as the new fallen snow. Alas! to that state no penitence can ever restore it. Of this necklace you made me a present on my birth-day five years ago. That was a happy day. You had arranged a small entertainment in the country; O how cheerful were we altogether! This pin I received at the birth of my William. How heavily weighs the recollection of past joys by our own hands destroyed!—No; this casket of jewels I cannot accept, unless you wish to put into my possession a perpetual reproach. [*Takes out only the pin, and then returns the box. Meinau, in as great emotion, but endeavouring to conceal it, takes the box with averted face, and puts it by.*] The pin only I take as a memento of my William's birth.

‘*Meinau.* No; I can withstand no longer. [*Turns toward her; his tone neither stern nor soft, neither firm nor tremulous, but fluctuating between all.*] Farewell!

‘*Eulalia.* O, but one moment longer! An answer to yet one question more, to ease a mother's heart! Are my children yet alive.

‘*Meinau.* They are.

‘*Eulalia.* And are they well.

‘*Meinau.* And well.

‘*Eulalia.* God, receive a mother's thanks! My William, I imagine, must be grown pretty tall.

‘*Meinau.* I believe he is.

‘*Eulalia.* And Emilia:—Is she still your favourite? [*Meinau, greatly agitated by this scene, is struggling between the emotions of honour and love.*] O noble-minded generous man! allow me once to see my children before we part, that I may press them to my bosom, give them my blessing, and kiss the features of their father in them. [*Meinau is silent.*] Ah, if you knew how, through these three dreary years, my heart has panted after my infants; how instantly my tears have burst from me whenever I saw a boy or girl of the same age with mine; how sometimes I have sat in darkness in my chamber, and solitarily indulged my mind with the magic pictures which fancy painted to my sight. Now on my lap sat William, now Emilia! Oh permit me to see them once, to take one last maternal embrace; and then we separate for ever.

‘*Meinau.* You shall, Eulalia, and this very evening. I expect them every moment. They were brought up at the little town just by here. I have sent my servant for them, who might have been back ere this time. I give you my word, that as soon as they come I will send them to you; and they may stay with you, if you please, till the dawn of day to-morrow: then I take them with me. [*A pause.—The Countess and her brother, who, at a small distance in the back ground have witnessed the whole scene, exchange some significant glances. The Major goes into the hut, and soon after comes out with John and the two children. He gives the boy to his sister, who places herself behind Eulalia, while he stands with the girl at the back of Meinau.*]



‘ *Eulalia*. Then we have no more to say to each other in this world. [*Collecting all her resolution.*] Farewell thou noble man! [*Takes his hand.*] Forget an unfortunate woman, who will never forget you. [*Kneels.*] Allow me once more to press this hand to my lips, this hand that once was mine.

‘ *Meinau*. [*Raising her.*] No humiliation, *Eulalia*. [*He shakes her hand.*] Farewell!

‘ *Eulalia*. For ever.

‘ *Meinau*. For ever!

‘ *Eulalia*. We part without animosity.

‘ *Meinau*. Certainly without animosity.

‘ *Eulalia*. And when my sufferings shall have an end; when we shall meet again in another world —

‘ *Meinau*. There reigns no prejudice. Then you are mine again. [*Their hands are folded in each other's, their eyes meet, they stammer out once more a Farewell! and separate; but in going Eulalia turns on William, and Meinau on Emilia!*]

‘ *Emilia*. Father!

‘ *William*. Mother!

[*They press the children in their arms, in speechless rapture.*]

‘ *Emilia*. Dear Father!

‘ *William*. Dear Mother!

[*The father and mother quit the children, look on each other, open their arms, and embrace fervently.*]

‘ *Meinau*. I forgive you.

[*The Countess and the Major lift the children up, who cling to the necks of their parents, and cry, Dear Father! Dear Mother!*]

[*The curtain drops.*] P. 93.

In the free translation we deem that alteration injudicious which makes the wife only elope. Guilt merely intentional would not have produced such self-loathing, nor would timely repentance have felt the bitterness of remorse. With the statement in the Preface relative to the conduct of the managers of Drury-Lane theatre, we have no concern.

## NOVELS, &c.

*Clarentine, a Novel: in Three Volumes.* 12mo. 10s. 6d. sewed.  
Robinsons.

This novel is evidently from the Burney school; and it is said to have been written by a near relative of the successful author of *Cecilia* and *Camilla*. In its construction, a perfect regularity of plan is preserved; the events rise in a series, exhibiting the education, early virtues, taste and sensibility, and the more mature sentiments, independent spirit and chastened affection of *Caroline*. The dialogue is easy, often humorous, and pleasingly descriptive of modern manners and follies. The subordinate characters are rendered necessary to the story; and the attention of the reader is constantly

kept up by his being insensibly interested not only in the fate of the heroine, but of the other branches of the amiable family of Delmington. This work, in our opinion, is greatly superior to novels of the ordinary stamp; and it discovers talents from which much may be expected in this department of literature.

*Henry Willoughby. A Novel. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. sewed.*  
Kearfley. 1798.

In this novel there appears to be a mixture of truth and fiction; and, though its composition is irregular (for the story is left incomplete), so many probable adventures are related in it, and so many just remarks on life and manners are interspersed, that we cannot but recommend it as superior, in point of utility, to those productions of the kind, where the main purpose is the perplexity of courtship terminating in a fortunate union. The author has introduced some well known characters, delineated in Smollet's manner, and not without a considerable portion of his spirit and force.

*Hubert de Sevrac. A Romance, of the 18th Century. By Mary Robinson, Author of Poems, Angelina, &c. 3 Vols. 12mo. 12s. sewed.* Hookham. 1796.

The character of Mrs. Robinson's novels being generally known, it is perhaps sufficient to say, that Hubert de Sevrac is inferior to her former productions. It is an imitation of Mrs. Radcliffe's romances, but without any resemblance that may not be attained by a common pen. There are detached parts, however, of which we may speak with approbation; and, during the prevalence of the present taste for romances, the whole may afford amusement to the supporters of circulating libraries. But it may be necessary to apprise novel-writers, in general, that this taste is declining, and that real life and manners will soon assert their claims.

*The Midnight Bell, a German Story, founded on Incidents in real Life. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. sewed.* Symonds. 1798.

As this novel has no prefatory address, we know not whether it is a translation from the German, or an original work; but we are inclined to think that the latter description is more applicable to it. The serious incidents are founded on the passion of jealousy; the concomitant circumstances of ghosts, murders, midnight bells, &c. are introduced with the usual mysterious apparatus; and the story will not be the less relished because not very probable. The authors of works on this plan seem not to care how absurd and contradictory the story may be in its progress, provided they can make all plain and evident at the conclusion; but, indeed, they do not always attend even to this point.

*Private History of Peregrine Proteus the Philosopher. By C. M. Wieland. Translated from the German. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Boards.* Johnson.

The genius of Wieland is well known from his numerous writ-



ings. In this work he derides Christianity; but the attempt to depreciate it will not, we think, be successful, as he admits the beneficence of its precepts while he disbelieves its divine authority. Some of the love-scenes are drawn with so luxuriant a pencil, that it would be improper to recommend these volumes to the attention of the young. A few trite moral sentiments, exalted by the charms of language, are a poor compensation for the mischiefs that follow a direct incitement of the voluptuous passions.

*Days of Chivalry. A Romance. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. sewed. Lane. 1797.*

This production of a female pen, humbly termed by the author an 'unoffending trifle,' contains a pleasing variety of incidents, not ill related or unhappily combined.

*Edgar: or the Phantom of the Castle. A Novel. In Two Vols. By R. Sicklemore. 12mo. 7s. Lane. 1798.*

Although we cannot assign a very high rank to this production, we do not think it contemptible; and it will afford some entertainment to the *amateurs* of horror. It was written for a benevolent and useful purpose; and its moral is, that the efforts of an honest mind, though poor and unprotected, will ultimately rise superior to the deep-laid machinations of vice, though armed with wealth and power.

#### MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

*The Refuge. By the Author of the Guide to Domestic Happiness. The Third Edition, enlarged. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Button. 1798.*

This volume consists of a series of letters, addressed to a young lady who, after having enjoyed all the elegant and luxurious pleasures of fashionable life, discovered that her expectations of happiness were fallacious, and that many of her pursuits were not only trifling but criminal. At this time (we are informed) 'a conviction of guilt filled her breast with tumult; terrifying apprehensions agitated her soul: she beheld with astonishment the precipice on which she stood, the imminent danger with which she was surrounded—that there was but a step between her and everlasting ruin; and trembling on this precipice, she first uttered that inexpressibly important query—"What shall I do to be saved?"' In answer to this inquiry, these letters were written; and the sale of the work induced the author to enlarge it. A strain of Calvinistic divinity pervades the epistles. Justification by free grace, independent of all good works, is enforced; and the blood of Jesus is pointed out as the only *refuge* for persons whose consciences, like that of the young lady, have been awakened from the sin of their ways.

The style of this work is superior to that of many productions of a similar tendency; some of the more elegant passages in Dr. Johnson's moral writings are happily introduced, though without acknowledgement; and the embellishments of paper and print, as well as the price, seem intended to introduce the *Refuge* to peni-

tents of a higher rank than the majority of Calvinists have attained. Whatever our sentiments may be, we honour the writer's zeal, and hope that his labours may be attended with success.

*A Letter to Sir John Scott, his Majesty's Attorney-General, on the Subject of a late Trial in Guildhall. By Gilbert Wakefield, B. A. &c. 8vo. 1s. Sold by the Author, at Hackney. 1798.*

We did not expect that Mr. Wakefield would suffer the prosecution of one of the publishers of his late pamphlet to pass without notice. Unawed by the frowns of power, he ventures to deliver his sentiments freely and openly on the subject of the trial, and on various points connected with it.

After what he calls an 'unsophisticated and uncourtly adjustment of preliminaries,' he animadverts on that part of the attorney-general's reply to Mr. Erskine, which, in a contemptuous strain, represented the poor as a necessary part in the general arrangement of the creator. He admits, that inequalities of condition are the dispensations of the deity; but contends, that the rich are by no means justified in neglecting and despising the poor, or in resigning them, with haughty apathy, to the infelicities of their lot. It is the duty of the former (he says) to make unceasing efforts for 'an essential melioration of mortality,' by a gradual improvement of the state of the poor; and an attention to this object is enforced by the example of our Saviour.

He accuses sir John Scott of 'a most infamous misrepresentation' of his meaning in a particular instance, or 'a stupidity most incorrigible.' The attorney-general cannot be suspected of the latter failing; and the other part of the alternative is too strongly expressed.

He condemns the partial and insidious management of the prosecution; and afterwards opposes the general permission, to the accuser, of the privilege of reply, as 'a palpable violation of all speculative justice;' but we do not entirely agree with him in this point, as it is the fault of the jury if the due effect of the defence should be weakened by the plausible eloquence of the reply.

With warmth and energy he asserts, and maintains in the fullest latitude, 'the privilege of discussing through the press every topic of human controversy;' and, having stated the motives which ought to operate against all attempts for the suppression of any literary productions, and the punishment of their authors (namely, the motives of prudence, philosophy, justice, humanity, and religion), he proceeds in the following strain:

'These are a summary of my reasons for a liberty of the press perfectly unrestrained, on all possible topics of investigation and debate. Through the benign influence of this liberty, and a vigorous cultivation of our intellect under a political system, at once generous, humane, and energetic, philosophy in all her branches would expand with genial fertility, taste and learning would thrive with full luxuriance, reason would reign triumphant, and revelation would speedily wave the cross on her victorious banners.



through the extremities of the globe. A cubic inch of air can dilate itself through the prodigious sphere of Saturn's orbit. Man would approximate by illimitable advances to that perfection which the gospel exhorts him to attain. "The kingdoms of the world would become the kingdoms of our Lord and of his Christ." Pains and penalties, imprisonments and murders, the diabolical implements of corrupt unregenerated men! would be superseded by gentleness and philanthropy, persuasion, mutual forbearance, universal love. Tyranny, with all her liſtors, a foul and sanguinary train! would be confounded and consumed by the "brightness" of the divine presence; and their memorial blotted out for ever. "From the rising of the sun to the going down thereof, incense would be offered to the name of Jesus; and a pure offering."

"Phosphore! redde diem." P. 27.

The pamphlet concludes with the offer of some good advice to the attorney-general; but we cannot flatter Mr. Wakefield with the hope that sir John will pay any regard to it.

*Military Instruction from the late King of Prussia to his Generals. (Illustrated with Plates.) To which is added (by the same Author) particular Instruction to the Officers of his Army, and especially those of the Cavalry. Translated from the French, by Lieut. Foster, 1st (or Royal) Dragoons. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Egerton.*

In these martial times, when persons of almost every description learn the use of arms, a work of this kind must be useful, though it concerns officers more than privates. The plates with which it is accompanied relate to the disposition of troops, their modes of advancing and retreating, &c.

The translator declares, that 'simplicity and perspicuity of language' were his chief objects in the execution of his task; and, in those points, he has not been unsuccessful.

One specimen of the work will suffice,

'The whole of an army should be placed in order of battle agreeably to the nature of ground which every particular part of it requires. The plain is chosen for the cavalry, but this is not all which regards them: for if the plain be only a thousand yards in front, and bounded by a wood in which we suppose the enemy to have thrown some infantry, under whose fire their cavalry can rally, it will then become necessary to change the disposition, and place them at the extremities of the wings of the infantry, that they may receive the benefit of their support.

'The whole of the cavalry is sometimes placed on one of the wings, or in the second line: at other times their wings are closed by one or two brigades of infantry.

'Eminences, church-yards, hollow ways, and wide ditches are the most advantageous situations for an army. If, in the disposition of our troops, we know how to take advantage of these circumstances, we never need to fear being attacked.

‘ If your cavalry be posted with a morass in its front, it is impossible that it can render you any service : and if it be placed too near a wood, the enemy may have troops there, who may throw them into disorder and pick them off with their muskets, whilst they are deprived of every possible means of defence. Your infantry will be exposed to the same inconveniencies if they are advanced too far on a plain with their flanks not secured, for the enemy will certainly take advantage of such error, and make their attack on that side where they are unprotected.

‘ The nature of the ground must invariably be our rule of direction. In a mountainous country I should place my cavalry in the second line, and never use them in the first line except they could act to advantage, unless it be a few squadrons to fall on the flank of the enemy’s infantry who may be advancing to attack me.

‘ It is a general rule in all well-disciplined armies, that a reserve of cavalry be formed if we are on a plain ; but where the country is chequered and intersected, this reserve is formed of infantry, with the addition of some hussars and dragoons.’ P. 32.

*A Letter to the Honourable Thomas Erskine, on the Prosecution of Thomas Williams for publishing the Age of Reason. By Thomas Paine, &c. 8vo. 6d. Paris. 1797.*

When a man, speaking of the Bible, makes use of these expressions, ‘ I can write a better book myself,’ we may safely vouch for his ignorance of its contents, and his self-sufficiency. Yet these words are in the epistle which is now before us ; and perhaps there may be some who will believe Thomas Paine upon his word.

The theological part of this letter is contemptible. Mr. Paine endeavours to prove, that the Bible is not the word of God ; and the two first chapters of Genesis are, in his opinion, sufficient for the purpose ; but he must be informed, that his argument is not new, and that many learned and sincere believers in the Bible consider those two chapters as not having been written by one and the same person. It is not necessary to true faith, that we should believe the book of Genesis to have been compiled by Moses ; and no Christian who reads that book, can have the least doubt, that, before the time of that legislator, the prophecies of Jacob were current among the Israelites.

Mr. Paine’s expectation of finding the Bible, if it be the word of God, a perfect specimen of good writing, will be deemed absurd by the generality of Christians ; and, if he had given himself the trouble of consulting Lowth, he would have found the man of taste discriminating the style of the several parts, and accounting for the diversity from the characters of the writers. The Bible contains the different revelations made by God to mankind ; but many of the histories included in it may not be the produce of divine inspiration.

The idle story, that the law was not known till the time of Josiah, is repeated in this pamphlet ; and we will not waste the time of our readers with a comment on so ridiculous a figment. They



are, perhaps, not prepared for a sermon from our author; yet with one the publication concludes; and it was preached at a meeting of the Theophilanthropes, of which sect Paine is a member. The chief object of this discourse is, in the language of Pope,

‘ To look through nature up to nature’s God.’

With regard to the prosecution of the bookseller, we may say, that we condemn it, from our conviction of the truth and merits of the Bible, as strongly as Paine himself, who denies that truth and those merits. Upon this point, he observes, that

‘ the prosecution against Williams charges him with publishing a book, entitled the Age of Reason, which, it says, is an impious blasphemous pamphlet, tending to ridicule and bring into contempt the holy scriptures. Nothing is more easy than to find abusive words, and English prosecutions are famous for this species of vulgarity. The charge however is sophistical; for the charge as growing out of the pamphlet should have stated, not as it now states, to ridicule and bring into contempt the holy scriptures, but to shew, that the books called the holy scriptures are not the holy scriptures. It is one thing if I ridicule a work as being written by a certain person; but it is quite a different thing, if I write to prove that such work was not written by such person. In the first case, I attack the person through the work; in the other case, I defend the honor of the person against the work. This is what the Age of Reason does, and consequently the charge in the indictment is sophistically stated. Every one will admit, that if the Bible be not the word of God, we err in believing it to be his word, and ought not to believe it. Certainly, then, the ground the prosecution should take, would be to prove that the Bible is in fact what it is called. But this the prosecution has not done and cannot do.

‘ In all cases the prior fact must be proved, before the subsequent facts can be admitted in evidence. In a prosecution for adultery, the fact of marriage, which is the prior fact, must be proved before the facts to prove adultery can be received. If the fact of marriage cannot be proved, adultery cannot be proved; and if the prosecution cannot prove the Bible to be the word of God, the charge of blasphemy is visionary and groundless.’ P. 17.

To this the lawyer will answer, that it may be all true in point of reason, though not in law. If the law calls it blasphemy to ridicule any writing, and annexes a punishment to the crime, the jury must find the verdict upon the proper evidence; and it is not our business to enter into a dispute with lawyers. The verdict of a jury, however, can prove nothing as to the point in question; namely, whether the Bible deserves the confidence which we place in it. We therefore concede this point to Mr. Paine, that a judicial verdict of blasphemy cannot give credit to the Bible, any more than the decision of a *cadi* can sanction the Koran.

We cannot admit an inference which he draws, when he says,

‘The prosecution, however, though it may injure the individual, may promote the cause of truth; because the manner in which it has been conducted appears a confession to the world, that there is no evidence to prove that the Bible is the word of God.’ p. 18.

This prosecution does not prove the want of rational evidence for the Bible; but we allow it to be a very strong presumption, that the prosecutors had not the confidence in the Bible which it deserves; and we are sorry that any Christians should give so great an advantage against themselves to the adversary.

‘If the Bible be’ (says our author very properly) ‘the word of God, it needs not the wretched aid of prosecutions to support it; and you might with as much propriety make a law to protect the sunshine as to protect the Bible, if the Bible, like the sun, be the work of God.’ p. 21.

‘Leave the Bible to itself. God will take care of it if he has any thing to do with it, as he takes care of the sun and the moon, which need not your laws for their better protection.’ p. 21.

‘Religion is a private affair between every man and his Maker, and no tribunal or third party has a right to interfere between them. It is not properly a thing of this world; it is only practised in this world; but its object is in a future world; and it is no otherwise an object of just laws than for the purpose of protecting the equal rights of all, however various their beliefs may be.’ p. 20.

We conclude with intimating to this infidel writer, that the book, which has sustained with honour the investigation of the most learned men in the world, is not to be depreciated, because, upon improper grounds, the civil power has been called forth in its defence.

*Observations concerning the Diet of the common People, recommending a Method of Living less expensive, and more conducive to Health, than the present. By William Buchan, M. D. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh; and Author of the “Domestic Medicine.”* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1797.

The intention of the author of ‘Domestic Medicine,’ in the present attempt, may be very good; but he has not advanced one new observation on the subject of œconomy in feeding the poor. Whatever his notions, on the consumption and use of bread among the lower orders of society, may be, he proposes no cheaper or safer substitute, nor is it likely that a better or more wholesome substance can be found.

As for his plan of broths, soups, and other liquid foods, it has been proposed by many; but we cannot think it either a cheaper or more healthy mode. He surely knows that no satisfactory meal can be made without a considerable portion of solid matter, espe-



cially where great labour is sustained; which is generally the case with those who are to be benefited by the doctor's advice.

At the *dreadful* effects of the use of tea, he is much alarmed. It has long been fashionable among the faculty to decry this beverage; but the general experience of mankind does not prove it to be so *very* pernicious as it is here represented.

*An Historical Account of the Embassy to the Emperor of China, &c., Abridged principally from the Papers of Earl Macartney, as compiled by Sir George Staunton, &c. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Stockdale. 1797.*

This abridgment first appeared in numbers; and it involved the publisher in a contest with Mr. Nicol, who apprehended that it would injure the sale of the original work. Without deciding between these disputants, we shall only observe, that the *epitome* is sufficiently comprehensive for general readers; that it is better executed than several abstracts which we have seen of interesting voyages or travels; and that notes of additional information are annexed.

*A Supplement to complete and illustrate Mr. Nicol's Octavo Edition of Sir George Staunton's Account of the Embassy to China; consisting of Twenty-five Plates, &c. 8vo. 5s. Stockdale. 1797.*

The plates which form this supplement are the same with those which accompanied the above-mentioned abridgment; and some of them are superior to the *vignettes* from which they were copied.

*The Life of M. Zimmerman, Counsellor of State and chief Physician to the King of England at Hanover, &c. Translated from the French of S. A. D. Tissot, M. D. &c. Small 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1797.*

We have already noticed a translation of Tissot's pleasing sketch of the life of his ingenious and virtuous friend\*. On a survey of the present publication, we find that it is not a new transfusion of the original into our language, being borrowed (without acknowledgment) from that which we have mentioned with approbation.

*The Probable Progress and Issue of the Commotions which have agitated Europe since the French Revolution, argued from the Aspect of Things, and the Writings of the Prophets. By J. Bicheno. 8vo. 2s. Johnson. 1797.*

However few the number of Mr. Bicheno's converts may be, he persists with a laudable zeal in warning the nation against impending calamities, which can be averted only by reformation in church and state. His farther investigation of prophetic scripture seems to convince him, that his former position was right—that a war of thirty years from 1789 was ordained for the over-

\* See our XXIst volume, New Arr. p. 119.

throw of all political and ecclesiastical tyranny and corruption. In the present tract, he has displayed some portion of critical acumen; but his writings are less calculated for popular use than a reformer on his scale might wish.

*The Spirit of the Public Journals for 1797. Being an impartial Selection of the most exquisite Essays and Jeux d' Esprit, principally Prose, that appear in the Newspapers and other Publications. With explanatory Notes, and Anecdotes of many of the Persons alluded to. To be continued annually. 8vo. 5s. Richardson. 1798.*

The title of this work sufficiently indicates its contents. The selection appears to have been well made; and the volume will be found amusing, if not very interesting.

*Ordinances of Insurance and Average of the City of Hambro; published by Order of the Most Provident Senate, the 10th of September, 1731. Translated from the German, by Barnard van Sandau, Notary Public, &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray and Highley. 1797.*

This work is not an object of criticism; and its utility to merchants, brokers, under-writers, &c. in their transactions with Hamburg, must depend on the continuance of the ordinances.

*Genethliacal Astrology, comprehending an Enquiry into, and Defence of the Celestial Science; with the Method of rectifying Nativities, by the legal Mode of the Trutine of Hermes: comprising also a Variety of Genitures, investigated agreeably to the genuine System of Claudius Ptolemy; proving the Verity of elementary Influx, and sydereal Affection. By John Worsdale. 8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Symonds.*

Trash fit only for women who pretend to tell fortunes by the dregs of tea in a cup, or for ladies of fashion who run after the wise women belonging to our author's profession.

*An Alarm to the Public, and a Bounty promised to every Loyal Subject, who will come forward to repel the Enemy. Arms and Accoutrements provided for every Man, gratis. By J. Brown. 8vo. 6d. Longman. 1798.*

An absurd application of scriptural passages to military affairs.

#### REPLY TO A CORRESPONDENT.

We have again been assailed by the Suffolk Freeholder, in his usual strain of virulence and falsehood. We lament that the poor man's head is so disordered as to be *tribus Anticyris insanabile*: but he is at full liberty to give vent to his malice. The censures lavished by such a man we consider as real compliments; for we should disdain the good opinion of so blind a votary of folly and prejudice, so incompetent a critic, and so contemptible a writer.



# A P P E N D I X

TO THE

TWENTY-THIRD VOLUME

OF THE

NEW ARRANGEMENT

OF THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

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## FOREIGN ARTICLES.

*Voyage de la Pérouse autour du Monde, publié conformément au Décret du 22 Avril 1791, et rédigé par M. L. A. Milet-Mureau, Général de Brigade dans le Corps du Génie, Directeur des Fortifications, Ex-constituant, Membre de plusieurs Sociétés littéraires de Paris.*

*A Voyage round the World, in the Years 1785, 1786, 1787, and 1788, by J. F. G. de la Pérouse; published conformably to a Decree of the Year 1791, and edited by M. L. A. Milet-Mureau. 4 Vols. 8vo. Imported by Dulau. 1798.*

IN the year 1788 \*, we gave an abstract of the course of the present voyage, so far as the accounts brought by M. Dufresne extended; accounts which proved almost the last. From the intelligence which afterwards arrived, it appeared that M. de la Pérouse and his companions had reached Kamtschatka in September, 1787, and that M. de Lesseps was then commissioned to convey the dispatches to Europe. In our review of that gentleman's narrative of his travels †, we predicted, from the long silence of the navigators, that they were no more—a prediction too fatally fulfilled.

As a general outline of the voyage may here be expected, we may observe, that the unfortunate adventurers sailed from

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\* See our LXVth Vol. p. 398. but † See our second Vol. New Arr. p. 9.

APP. VOL. XXIII. NEW ARR.

L 1

Brest in August 1785, doubled Cape Horn, and arrived in Conception Bay on the coast of Chili, in February following. From that coast they stretched to the westward, and proceeded to Easter Isle, thence to the Sandwich Islands. From these, nearly in a northern course, they sailed to the coast of North America, and reached the latitude of  $59\frac{1}{2}$ , between Behring's Bay and Mount Elias. This was the extremity of their northern direction, as far as it has been ascertained. They then coasted downward to Nootka Sound, along New Albion to Monterey, a Spanish settlement, about lat.  $37^{\circ}$ , in the northern part of the coast of California. In this direction, therefore, they proceeded farther to the southward than some later navigators. From Monterey, they crossed the tropic of Cancer in a south-western direction, and then proceeded to Canton. From China they steered to the Philippines, thence to Korea through the sea of Japan, and to Tartary, as far north as  $51\frac{3}{4}^{\circ}$ . They afterwards passed along the coasts of the island Tchoka, and then sailed to Kamtschatka. From the bay of Avatscha, they had a long course on the Pacific Ocean, before they arrived at the islands of the Navigators. New Holland was at length visited by them; but their course from Botany-bay is unknown.

For a voyage which was to rival those of captain Cook, the preparations were conducted with no common care. The navigators were the most distinguished seamen of France; and the philosophers who accompanied them were the most able in their respective departments. Science was multifariously displayed in the instructions given to them, pointing out the objects of their attention; and their own genius was alive at every moment, to second the views of their government and their instructors. As if la Pérouse had foreseen his own fate, he carefully sent home, at every interval, descriptions of what he had seen, and accounts of the experiments and observations of his companions. Little therefore is lost, which we perhaps could have received on his return; and this reflection, though selfish and contracted, alone remains for our consolation.

Of the four octavo volumes, the first contains the introductory memoirs, the instructions of every kind, and extracts of some voyages undertaken by the Spaniards. The second and third contain the journal of the voyage; and the last, the detached memoirs, and letters from la Pérouse himself and the men of science who accompanied him. The plates form a folio volume, executed unequally, and finished with more spirit than elegance.

The preface of the editor, M. Milet-Mureau, is written with modesty and propriety. We shall only select that commendation which he professes to have kept in view.



\* Prompted by the same heart-felt interest which had, in the tribune of the constituent-assembly, called forth my most zealous exertions to have the account of this voyage published for the benefit of the estimable relict of la Pérouse, I endeavoured to direct the choice of government to some nautical character, duly qualified to supply the place of one who had been originally nominated to the task of editing it. But France had already lost the greater part of her most distinguished naval officers; and those who still remained were either engaged in actual service, or had withdrawn into voluntary retirement. The minister, therefore, had no other choice left than that of a man who was at least versed in the study of natural history, and mathematics—an essential qualification for such an undertaking. The appointment of an editor who should preferably possess that kind of knowledge, was likewise consonant with the intentions of la Pérouse, who wrote to one of his friends nearly in these terms: “If my journal be printed before my return, I particularly desire that the editorship may not be intrusted to a man of letters; for he will either consult the elegant turn of phrase at the expense of the appropriate term, which to his ear may sound harsh and barbarous,—the very term which the seaman and the man of science would prefer, but which they will then look for in vain;—or, setting wholly aside all the nautic and astronomic details, and only aiming at the composition of an interesting romance, he will, for want of that knowledge which his education has not allowed him to acquire, fall into errors that will prove fatal to those who may succeed me: but let an editor be chosen who is well acquainted with the mathematics, who shall be capable of calculating, of combining my data with those of other navigators, of rectifying any mistakes which may have escaped me, and who shall not himself commit any new ones. An editor of that stamp will scrupulously adhere to the ground-work that I have furnished, will suppress no essential particulars, will present the technical details in the rough and unpolished but concise style of a seaman; and he will have duly acquitted himself of his task, if he shall put himself precisely in my place, and publish the work in such form as I would myself have wished to impart to it.”

The preliminary discourse does not deserve high commendation. That part of it which respects universal meridians and the division of the circle, is trite and trifling. The life of la Pérouse is partial in some respects, vague and indiscriminate in others. We collect from it, that he was a man of considerable abilities, equally spirited and humane; attentive, circumspect, and disinterested. The decrees of the national assembly for fitting out ships to search for him, and for publish-

ing his journals, follow. The next article consists of the instructions given to him—instructions which, from different circumstances, he was unable to pursue in the order stated, but from which we may form an idea of the course that he must have followed after his departure from Botany Bay. After visiting the Friendly Isles, he was directed to run down the south-west coast of New Caledonia; to examine the isle of Santa Cruz of Mendana, and determine its extent to the south; or, if the wind would not allow that survey, to run along the coast of the Terre des Arfacides, on the south; to examine also an island to the north-west of that territory, and, if possible, the eastern coast of Louisiade. To this groupe of islands he probably steered; and perhaps in these he was lost. Islands inhabited by treacherous savages would afford no asylum to shipwrecked mariners; and the numerous reefs and shallows would make this navigation very insecure. From him we might have expected some valuable remarks; but fortunately these islands have been since examined with care. Lieutenant Shortland, in his return from Botany Bay, pursued this course, and observed with accuracy many islands of these seas: his journal was published at the end of governor Philip's voyage in 1789, noticed in our sixty-ninth volume.

From the instructions we shall make no extract, but content ourselves with remarking, that the annexed notes contain a valuable mass of geographical information, and the instructions to the men of science should be carefully perused by every voyager. They are calculated to direct the attention to objects of great importance, and to keep the mind alive to every passing circumstance, which idleness might neglect or ignorance overlook.

Of the journals of Spanish voyages, given in the first volume, it may not be improper to take notice of that which is the most important. Much of its merit, however, is lost by the errors of the French translation, or the strange obscurity of the Spanish original. It is to be regretted that M. Milet-Mureau is not better acquainted with marine tactics, and that Maurelle, the Spanish commander, was not more accurate in his observations.

Maurelle was sent from Manilla to the western coast of America, imperfectly provided for a voyage which was to extend across the Pacific, where supplies were at least transitory and precarious. His small stock being almost wholly consumed by the cock-roaches, he procured refreshments in one of the Friendly Islands, and also at Guam, the capital of the Marian or Ladrone Isles. The principal importance of this voyage, in a geographical view, is the course pursued to the north of the groupe, called by the names of Solomon's



Islands, Arfacides, &c. If our author is correct, all these islands are in southern latitude, none of them extending to the equator, though the northernmost reach within one or two degrees of it. He coasted these islands chiefly on the north, and added new ones to the former list. Lattè Island, or Mayorga, where he met with a very hospitable reception, had not before been visited; and, as the manners of the inhabitants differ from those of their neighbours, we shall relieve the dryness of these geographical disquisitions by some extracts.

‘ The Indians who came on board, pressed me to penetrate into the heart of their archipelago: each of them pointed to his own island, and assured me that I should there find water, and every thing of which I might stand in need. The *equis*, or captains, testified the greatest friendship for me as they severally arrived; and I endeavoured not to remain in arrear with them. Several of their number accepted the invitation to my table, but they ate only of the fruits which they had themselves brought on board. I imagined that these islanders were divided into a great number of casts or tribes, considering the number of *equis* who were seen to issue forth their commands: but, in other respects, I observed the most perfect harmony to prevail among all.

‘ Among our visitants were some of the female sex. Their countenances appeared to us by no means disagreeable: their dress consisted of a sort of petticoat which covered them from the waist down to the feet. The men were habited in the same manner. I admired the fine shape and size of the latter: some of them, whom I caused to be measured, were six feet four inches high, and stoutly made in proportion; nor were these the tallest among those Indians. Certain it is that the smallest of them were equal to the tallest and most athletic of my ship's company. These islanders in general are tall and robust.

‘ As soon as we had cast anchor, I received a present of fruits sent by the *tubou*; and the bearer of the present, according to the information given to me, was his son. What could be the meaning of the name *tubou*, which the *equis* repeated with singular affection? I imagined at the moment that it probably designated the *equi* of the island near which we were stationed, who must have enjoyed some pre-eminence above the other *equis*, since they spoke of him with such respect. Whoever he might be, I gave the best possible reception to his son, with a view of conciliating his friendship, that we might experience no impediment in our operations when preparing to provide a stock of water, and that he might, on the contrary, countenance and support us with all the influence of his authority.

At eight o'clock in the morning the frigate was surrounded by a hundred canoes: the cries of those who navigated the canoes, and there carried on their traffic, were so thrill, that it was impossible for us on board of the ship to hear each other's voices. At the same hour they informed us that the *tubou* was coming to pay us a visit. As soon as he approached, all the canoes that environed the frigate on the starboard side retired to make way for him. I received him with all possible civility. His age and enormous corpulency had deprived him of the agility requisite to enable him to climb on board; so that it became necessary for the *equis*, whom I had before considered as petty kings, to lift him up by the shoulders as he ascended the ship's ladder. He was accompanied by his wife, whose features surpassed in beauty those of all the other women whom we had hitherto seen in this island; and I would almost have sworn at that moment that she was the daughter of some European; so captivating were the graces which I observed in her person: as she was not above twenty-five years of age at most, her youth gave an additional lustre to her charms. They both seated themselves on the watch-bench; and all the others, lowly prostrating themselves, kissed the *tubou's* feet. As a present, he brought me a canoe full of sweet potatoes. In token of my gratitude, I arrayed him and his wife with sashes of flame-coloured silk descending from the neck to the waist, to which, with carnation ribands, I suspended two dollars bearing the impression of our august sovereign's features. At the same time I distributed a number of rials with the same impression, which should, in after-times, afford irrefragable proofs of our having touched at these islands.

So great was the subordination of the *equis* to the *tubou*, that not one of them ventured to sit in his presence: even his own son, who had, before his father's arrival, affected all the dignity of majesty, was now seen to behave with as profound respect as the others. I can assert with truth that the *tubou* hardly deigned to honour them with a word. I conducted them to the great cabin: they were transported with admiration on beholding the apparatus of the frigate, and the various objects which I showed to them. At length, perfectly satisfied with the good reception they had experienced from us, they departed, after having given us the most unequivocal assurances of the strictest friendship, and after a thousand kisses and embraces lavished on us by the good old man.

There is also some novelty in the account of their games.

Immediately there stepped forth from the ranks a robust athletic young man, pressing his left hand against his bosom, and striking his elbow with the right. He performed round



the circle a number of gambols opposite the groupes of those who were not of his own tribe. A champion from among the latter having presented himself, and making the same gestures, the two men began to wrestle, grappling each other by the body, and pushing each other backward and forward with such force, that their veins and sinews were seen to swell prodigiously. At length one of the two combatants fell to the ground with such violence, that I thought he would never more be able to rise. He rose, however, covered with dust, and retired without daring to turn his head aside. The victor advanced to pay his homage to the king; and those of his tribe chanted a song; but, whether in honour of the successful champion, or to the disgrace of his defeated antagonist, I cannot tell.

These wrestling-matches lasted two hours; during which time one of the parties engaged had his arm fractured, and others received dreadful blows. While the wrestling continued, other champions presented themselves, who had their wrists and hands enveloped with thick cords, which served them as gauntlets. This kind of combat was much more terrible than the wrestling: at the very beginning of the assault, the combatants struck each other on the forehead, the temples, the cheeks,—in short, in every part of the face; and those who received these furious blows, became more ardent and impetuous in the conflict: I saw some of the number who were struck to the ground with the first blow. The spectators viewed these engagements with a certain degree of respect; nor was every one indiscriminately admitted to take a part in them.

A number of women, especially those who attended on the queen, assisted at these games. On this occasion they appeared to me in a quite different light from that in which I had hitherto considered them. Before, I had not thought them disagreeable: but, on this day, they had decorated themselves with their choicest finery; having their cloaks neatly folded back, and fastened down with a knot on the left side; wearing strings of large glass beads about their neck; their hair being elegantly arranged, their bodies washed, and perfumed with an oil of tolerably pleasing scent, and their skins so scrupulously clean, that they could not have suffered the smallest particle of sand to adhere to it: in short, they fixed my whole attention, and appeared to me much more beautiful than I had before conceived them to be.

The king commanded the women to engage in boxing as the men had done: they obeyed his orders, and maintained the conflict with such fierce animosity, that a single tooth would not have been left in the heads of these combatants, if they had not from time to time been separated. This sight affected me to the soul, and I requested the king to put an end to the combat:

he complied with my request ; and the assembled multitude loudly applauded the compassion which I had felt for those young women.'

A quotation relative to the cock-roaches may be added. These insects gnawed through the casks, so that the water almost at once disappeared ; and their devastations in the bread-rooms were dreadful.

' Thus circumstanced, and induced by the incessant complaints made to me, that the bread served out to the crew was not eatable, I determined to examine it myself. When I saw the condition in which it stood, I could not but consider myself as placed in the most direful situation to which the navigators of unknown seas can possibly be reduced, while at the same time I had not the smallest hope of relief. Never shall I recollect that afflicting moment, without feeling my soul harrowed up by the remembrance of the sight which then struck my eyes. With strict truth I can aver, that, if the Almighty had not supported me on that trying occasion, I should have fallen into the deepest despair, on seeing that there no longer existed even a probability of our being able to continue our voyage.

' I called in the first pilot, don Joseph Vasquez, the second pilot, don John d'Echeverria ; I assembled all the officers ; and I appointed the surgeon, don Pedro Carvajal, to take down the minutes of the council that we were about to hold, and of the deliberations which should take place. I severally conducted them to the bread-rooms : we there found millions of cock-roaches ; and, to form an adequate idea of the number of those insects, it would be necessary to have seen them with one's own eyes. Those destructive vermin had infested the frigate to such a degree, that the chaplain was several times obliged to pronounce exorcisms against them. On my part, I took the precaution of placing, in the cabins, the bread-rooms, and every part of the ship, vessels smeared on the inside with honey and sugar : each day a multitude of those insects were taken : I wasted on them almost the whole of my honey ; and yet no diminution of their number was at all perceivable.

' At the opening of the bread-room, the biscuit appeared to be untouched ; but near the partitions it had wholly vanished, and the bottom presented nought but a heap of bran and dust. Considering the defalcation of the men's allowance pursuant to the orders I had issued on the 16th of February, and the deduction of an ounce in the pound, which had taken place ever since our departure from Sifiran, I ought to have had three hundred and twenty-nine arrobes \* of bread remain-

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\* The *arrobe* weighs twenty-five pounds, of sixteen ounces each.



ing, exclusive of the other provisions, which were in tolerable plenty; but on that day I saw myself reduced to two casks full of dust rather than of bread. I gave orders for opening the three large casks containing our reserved store, which were well bound with strong hoops, and carefully tarred over; but they did not exhibit the appearance of having ever contained a particle of bread, being filled with cock-roaches alone.'

We now proceed to the journal of la Pérouse. This able navigator begins with a short historical account of the different voyages undertaken for the purposes of discovery. We early meet with his principal failing; namely, too great confidence in his own opinions; but this confidence he never carried into action; for he yielded, occasionally perhaps with too much facility, to the sentiments of his officers. In speculative opinions, however, he is certainly too dogmatical. For instance, with regard to the luminous appearance of the sea, he observes, that it probably proceeds from the dissolution of marine bodies; for, if produced by insects, they 'would not be diffused so lavishly from the pole to the equator, but would be chiefly conspicuous in particular climates.' The argument, weak in itself, is contradicted by decisive observation; for the insects have been seen and described by various naturalists, and even the slime, which is sometimes phosphoric, derives its light from the mixture of minute insects, or from the decomposition of the phosphoric ones.

Having left the harbour of Brest in the beginning of August, 1785, the voyagers, in the *Bouffole* and the *Astrolabe*, sailed to Madeira and Teneriffe. The Pic of the latter island was examined; but we regret, that M. Monneron's series of levels for ascertaining its height did not reach Europe. They were indeed incomplete; but the editor remarks, that he probably had distinguished the end of his observations in such a way, that any other traveller might have continued them.

After crossing the Atlantic, la Pérouse arrived at Trinidad, in which is a small Portuguese fort. The English had some pretensions to this island, but resigned them at the request of the Portuguese government. Having sought the island of Ascension, he asserts that it does not exist within  $7^{\circ}$  west longitude from the meridian of Trinidad, between the latitudes of  $20^{\circ} 10'$  and  $20^{\circ} 50'$ . He thinks that seamen have supposed themselves at Ascension, when they really were at Trinidad; and too positively hints that, as he did not see the island, it does not exist. The editor, in a note, reprehends his too positive decision, and his hasty discontinuance of the search. The

best English geographers have doubted the existence of the island in question; and Don Francesco de Barros, governor of St. Catharine, affirmed that it did not exist, having dispatched a vessel to examine all the coast in which it was said to have been found. We agree, however, with M. Milet-Mureau, that it is very improper to expunge it from the map; and, in this censure, the English geographers must be involved.

L'Isle Grande is another disputed island. We shall transcribe what la Pérouse has said of it.

‘The weather continued extremely fine till the 28th [of November, 1785], when we experienced a very violent gale from the eastward, the first to which we were exposed since our departure from France. On this occasion, I had considerable pleasure in observing, that, although our ships were very indifferent sailers, they stood the bad weather remarkably well, and were capable of resisting the rough seas which we should have to traverse. We were at this time in  $35^{\circ} 24'$  south lat. and long.  $43^{\circ} 40'$  west; and I was steering my course to the east-south-east, because I purposed, in my search for Isle Grande, to strike into its latitude at about ten degrees eastward of the position assigned to it in the different charts. I did not shut my eyes to the extreme difficulty I should have to encounter in getting back again: but in any case I was under a necessity of proceeding far to the westward, in order to reach the straits of Le Maire; and whatever way I might make in that direction while running down the meridian of Isle Grande, I should be so much the nearer to the coast of Patagonia, where I was obliged to take soundings previous to my doubling of Cape Horn. I also thought, that, as the latitude of Isle Grande had not been accurately ascertained, it was more probable that I should fall in with it by steering upon different tacks between the 44th and 45th degrees of latitude, than by pursuing a straight line in  $44^{\circ} 30'$ , as I might have done in running from west to east; the westerly winds being as constant in these seas, as those from the east are between the tropics.

‘It will soon appear that I derived no advantage from my calculations, and that, after an unavailing search of forty days, during which I experienced five gales of wind, I was constrained to proceed to my ulterior destination.

‘On the 7th of December, I was in the supposed parallel of Isle Grande, in latitude  $44^{\circ} 38'$  south, and longitude  $34^{\circ}$  west, according to a lunar observation taken on the preceding day. Pieces of sea-weed passed us on our way; and we had for several days been surrounded by birds; but they were of the species of the albatrosses and petrels, which never approach the land except in the breeding season.



These slight indications of land were, however, sufficient to keep alive our hopes, and afforded us some consolation in the tremendous seas which we were traversing. But I was not free from anxiety when I considered that I had still to proceed 35 degrees westward, to reach the strait of Le Maire, where it was of considerable importance that I should arrive before the end of January.

I continued steering upon different tacks between 44 and 45° of latitude, till the 24th of December: in that parallel I traversed fifteen degrees of longitude; and, on the 27th of December, I relinquished the search, fully convinced that the island mentioned by La Roche was not in existence, and that the appearance of sea-weed and petrels is no proof of the vicinity of land, since I discovered sea-plants and birds till my arrival on the coast of Patagonia. The chart on which the ship's place each day is marked down, will afford a better idea of the course I steered, than the details I have here given. I am convinced that the navigators who may undertake this search after me, will not be more successful than I have been; but they ought not to engage in it unless they are shaping their course to the eastward, towards the Indian ocean. In such case, it is neither a more difficult nor a more tedious task to make a run of 30 degrees upon that parallel than upon any other; and if they do not discover the land, at least they will have pursued a route still approximating to their destination. Indeed I am firmly persuaded that *Isle Grande* is, like *Pepys' Island*, a country that exists only in idea. The account given by La Roche, who pretends that he saw tall trees growing in it, is void of all probability; for it is beyond a doubt, that, in the latitude of 45 degrees, shrubs alone are to be found in an island situate in the midst of the southern ocean; since not a single tree of considerable size is to be met with in the islands of *Tristan d'Acuna*, which lie in a latitude infinitely more favourable to vegetation.

It is observed in a note, that the only fair conclusion is that *l'Isle Grande* does not exist in the position attributed to it by former geographers. Captain Cook, in his chart, seems to confound it with *Pepys' Island*; and Mr. Dalrymple is the only geographer of credit who has retained it. We do not find that this whole track has been explored by any navigator; and, therefore, the existence of the island is still problematical.

La Pérouse passed through the strait of Le Maire, and doubled Cape Horn with such vigilant attention, that he trusted to the accuracy of his observation as firmly, as to the position of the observatories of Greenwich or Paris. The land,

discovered by Drake, seems, according to the French navigator, to be Terra del Fuego.

On the 24th of February, 1786, the voyagers anchored in Conception Bay; and having, from their first arrival on the coast of Chili, taken lunar observations every day, they were able to confirm the accuracy of Juan, the companion of Ulloa. Conception is a Spanish settlement on the western coast of South-America: it has a safe and most commodious harbour. The soil is extremely fruitful; and the people might be happy, were it not for the impolitic exactions of the government, and the great number of monastic establishments. Idleness, rather than superstition, is the parent of these institutions; but, where provisions are easily supplied, it is scarcely necessary to fly to a cloister, with a view of avoiding labour.

Of the dress of the females of this province we have the following sketch.

‘A plaited petticoat, which leaves half of the leg exposed to view, and which is fastened far below the waist; stockings striped with red, blue, and white; shoes so short, that all the toes are doubled back, and the foot appears nearly round, are worn by the ladies of Chili. Their hair is unpowdered; and that which grows on the back part of the head is divided into small braids which hang down on their shoulders. Their corset is of gold or silver tissue, and is covered by two shawls, one of muslin, the other (which is placed over that) of woollen stuff of various colours, yellow, blue, or pink. With these woollen shawls the ladies cover their heads when they are in the streets, or when the weather is cold: but, within doors, they are accustomed to lay them on their lap; and there is a mode of toying with the muslin shawl, by incessantly placing and replacing it, in which the ladies of La Conception display a very graceful dexterity. They are in general handsome, and possessed of such amiable politeness, that there is certainly no maritime city in Europe, where foreign navigators could hope to be entertained with so much affection and amenity.’

The next resting-place was Easter Island. Davis's Land was not discovered, and perhaps does not exist; but there are islands in 27° south latitude, at the distance of 200 leagues from Copiago, which are really those of St. Felix and St. Ambrose, erroneously placed in all the charts. These have probably been mistaken for Davis's Land.

*(To be continued.)*



*Fragmens sur Paris, par Frederic Jean Laurent Meyer, Docteur en Droit à Hambourg. Traduits de l'Allemand, par le General Dumouriez. Hamburg. 1798.*

*Fragments upon Paris, by Dr. Meyer; translated from the German by General Dumouriez. 2 Vols.*

‘I Wish’ (says Dumouriez in his Preface) ‘that I could transmit, to those who will read these Fragments in the translation, the feelings which the original has excited in me. A wanderer, and proscribed from a country which owes to me her first military successes and the foundation of her liberty, I seek to find her, not in the errors, the misfortunes, or the crimes of those who have governed her, but in the consoling picture of the wise and the true philosophers by whom she is honoured.’

Consoling indeed is the picture which Dr. Meyer has presented—a great nation recovering from the convulsions that have only served to augment its power, and its governors rendering themselves as illustrious at home by their encouragement of the sciences, as they have made themselves formidable abroad by the success of their arms.

When Dr. Meyer entered Paris, in the spring of the year 1796, he found that city in a state of great tranquillity, notwithstanding the reports of commotion propagated by the enemies of the republic. He soon commenced his survey, and prepared materials for the work which we are now examining.

Among the contents of the first volume, we meet with a multiplicity of articles, irregularly arranged. Under the head of ‘streets,’ we are pleased to find, that the accidents which were so frequent under the old *régime*, when such a number of passengers were killed or maimed by the carelessness or wantonness of the drivers of carriages, no longer occur. Carriages, indeed, are not so numerous in Paris as they were before the revolution; but the chief reason of the favourable change is, that the present owners of equipages are more considerate.—The next article relates to the Pont-Neuf; and superficial accounts of the palace of the late duke of Orleans, of that of the Thuilleries, of several squares and other public places, follow.—Of the theatres the author treats more copiously. While he was at Paris, fifteen houses of that denomination were open, and were generally thronged. He observed, in his visits to these places of amusement, that ‘an irreconcilable hatred of the system of terror and of all arbitrary power, respect for the memory of the unfortunate victims of anarchy, an attachment to moderate principles and to lenient

measures, forgiveness and tolerance towards the better class of emigrants, affection for the defenders of the country, and an ardent desire of a speedy and general peace, were the prevailing sentiments of the nation,' as developed in the words and behaviour of the spectators, or in their manner of receiving and applying particular passages of the drama.

Dr. Meyer speaks contemptuously of the civic festivals of the Parisians; and he thinks that they have not that effect on the minds of the people which the institutors would wish to impress.

Passing to the subject of legislative proceedings, he applauds the order and moderation with which the debates are usually conducted, particularly in the council of elders. He has given the sketches of some debates which he witnessed in the council of five hundred; but these were exceptions from the general remark, as they were attended with great clamour and tumult. He particularly admired, on these occasions, the oratory of Thibaudeau, to whose merit in other respects he also bears testimony.

He has communicated some biographical and characteristic anecdotes of the members of the executive directory. The pentarchs who then ruled France were Rewbell, Le-Tourneur, Carnot, La-Reveillère-Lépaux, and Barras.

'Before the revolution' (says Dr. Meyer) 'Rewbell was an advocate of the supreme court of Colmar. He acquired reputation by his eloquence, his attention to business, his love of justice, and his disregard of selfish interests. As a member of the constituent assembly, as a deputy at Mentz during the siege, and in other employments, he did not forfeit, among candid observers of his conduct, the good opinion which he had thus gained. While the legislative assembly sat, he performed considerable service in his department; and, when he was a member of the convention, he defended his country against the desolating fury of anarchists. After the fall of Robespierre, he was one of the first who attacked the faction of the Jacobins; and he was the first who voted for the suppression of their clubs.—In his exercise of the directorial office, he is distinguished by a tenacious firmness in his opinions, when he has deliberately weighed them in his mind. This firmness, however, does not degenerate into blind obstinacy; for he will give way to a change of circumstances, and take the advice of those whom he esteems.—As a private man, he manifests a love of order, moderation, fidelity in friendship, and all the virtues of the father of a family.'

A favourable character is given, by the German writer, of Le-Tourneur, the negotiator at Lisle; but the French translator, in a note, speaks less respectfully of him.



After a panegyric upon Carnot, La-Reveillère-Lépaux is thus extolled.

‘ By the general voice, not merely of impartial persons, but even of those who are the most inimical to the existing government, he is honoured with the distinctive appellation of the virtuous man. France, it is said, has paid due homage to the purest civism, by conferring on La-Reveillère the highest dignity in the state. The public opinion fully acknowledges his merit as a statesman, a philosopher, and a private man. He has never belonged to any party; he loves peace; he values merit in all classes and in every country; and, with energetic frankness, he gives his sanction to every thing that is good and great.’

This *éloge* is the effusion of partiality, rather than of truth.

Barras is represented as a man of vivacity and courage, and as more attached to pleasure than to business. He was one of the defenders of the convention against the partisans of Robespierre; and he also assisted in quelling a renewed insurrection of the Parisians; but, in the latter of these commotions, he rendered himself obnoxious to a considerable part of the community by proceeding too far in the sanguinary intoxication of success.

We afterwards meet with an interesting account of Sieyes, who appears to have been equally misrepresented as a man and as a politician. We were amused with an anecdote respecting him, which we will lay before our readers.

‘ I can warrant’ (says Dr. Meyer) ‘ the truth of the following statement, which I received from a friend most deserving of credit, who was present when the affair happened.’

‘ Robespierre, whose hawk eye glanced death upon every one that incurred the slightest suspicion of being able to thwart his ambitious schemes, contented himself with carefully watching Sieyes. The latter, to avoid the iron arm of the tyrant, under which every thing bowed, withdrew himself from all concern in public affairs, and observed a rigorous silence. The tyrant made use of all the means in his power to discover traces of what Sieyes might have written; he had recourse to the opening of letters, that invention of the school of the Jesuits\*, so commodiously employed by despotism under the pretext of *reasons of state*, to explore the secrets of individuals—an arbitrary measure in which Robespierre had many predecessors, and finds many imitators. All letters addressed to the suspected mal-content were opened by order of the dicta-

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\* This dishonourable practice occasionally prevailed long before the time of the Jesuits. Rev.

tor. Sieyes, in conversation with a German friend, had expressed a wish to have some insight into Kant's new system of philosophy. This friend had written to his brother, a man of letters in one of the German universities, who, as he could express philosophical ideas with more facility in Latin than in French, traced, in the former language, a sketch of the principles of Kant's system, and directed it in a letter to Sieyes. The epistle reached Paris, and was opened at the bureau of the police. "A Latin letter, consisting of several sheets, to Sieyes—and from an enemy's country! secrets are concealed in it—perhaps even the plan of a conspiracy." Thus thought the penetrating diplomacy; and the important letter passed to the revolutionary committee. This council of high wisdom examined it, comprehended nothing, and despised the language of pedants. They summoned the most able school-masters, who repeatedly read, and disputed for a long time upon the contents of this singular epistle. The words they could easily translate; but they could not comprehend the meaning. One of the company cried out, "These characters deceive us; I here perceive the cipher of a dangerous secret." At last, in the minority of this Areopagus, one sage was found who was able to translate some passages intelligibly; and the great secret was discovered. It was proved that the letter contained no counter-revolutionary plan, but that the philosophical language was new, the meaning little comprehensible, and the matter very obscure.'

The second volume begins with an account of the National Institute of Arts and Sciences; but, as we have already given a sketch of that institution\*, we shall not dwell upon this part of the work. The transactions of several of the meetings of this body are mentioned; but we shall only extract a passage which exhibits in a favourable light the sensibility of those who were present.

'When I entered the hall' (says our author) I found the spectators, numerous as they were, in a general enthusiasm: a tumult of voices and cries prevailed; and many of the men, as well as the women, shed tears. Prony was then reciting an *éloge* in honour of the astronomer Pingré; and his subject gave him occasion to speak of the services which his friend Bailly had rendered to the science of astronomy. The name of that respectable old man was no sooner pronounced, than an effervescence of indignation and resentment at his inhuman murder spread through the assembly; and the speaker was obliged, for some time, to give way to the general spirit.

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\* See our XVth Volume, New Arr. p. 555.



After a long discontinuance of his discourse, he, in a strain of dignity mingled with emotion, made an apostrophe to the ensanguined *manes* of Bailly, offering the homage of the gratitude and veneration of his contemporaries, by whom his fate was deeply lamented. With the emotions of the orator, which frequently interrupted his speech, the feelings of all his auditors were in unison. In the silence which succeeded the agitations of enthusiasm—a silence indicative of the most refined sensibility—the shade of that great man, appeased by this funeral respect, seemed to be hovering over the assembly, and inspiring the scene. This mute expression was the most eloquent homage that could be offered to the merit of a man, whose name is inscribed in the annals of science, and enrolled among the most illustrious names in the records of the present age.

The Museum of Natural History is said to have been chiefly projected by the *ci-devant* comte de la Cépède, a man of talent and science. The establishment is well conducted; and the lectures are numerously attended.

The Garden of Plants is the favourite resort of the peaceable and respectable citizens: it affords the evening walk with which they indulge their children. Our readers, we doubt not, will be pleased with the following inscription, placed in different parts of this garden to prevent disorder.

‘ Citizens, respect this property ;

‘ 1. Because it tends to the good of humanity and to the advancement of useful science, and because its productions serve to relieve our sick and indigent brethren ;

2. Because it is national property ; in which quality it belongs to all, and to no one in particular.

‘ Citizens, in preserving this important property, you benefit yourselves. You are therefore requested to be watchful one over the other, in preventing any mischief or devastation from being committed in your presence.’

The writer adds,

‘ The effect of such an inscription, or even of a simple riband with the words “you can not pass here,” is more powerful over the people of Paris than the large grates armed with iron points at the entrance of the parks and gardens of the princes and nobles in Germany, or the posts covered with inscriptions, denouncing capital punishment against all who, by touching any thing, offer disrespect to the majesty of the place.’

The doctor's remark upon the central schools is perfectly just.

‘ The ancient languages, history, natural history, mathematics, natural philosophy, and chemistry, the study of the French language, the sciences, the fine arts, and legislation, are the objects of instruction. In this list I sought in vain for a professor of morals, or for lessons to form the pupils to the civic and domestic virtues. Why has this most important part of education been forgotten, rejected, excluded? Why has it not been considered that the man exists before the philosopher, that the good citizen and the father of a family are the most powerful support of the state?’

After the mention of various works of art, we have an account of David, the celebrated painter, unfortunately notorious as the partisan of Robespierre. Bad actions, however, do not always spring from bad motives; the persecuting fanaticism of the terrorist, or of the monk, does not necessarily imply depravity of heart. The errors of David were great; but he does not appear to have been a selfish or wicked man. The influence which he possessed during that disgraceful period of the revolution, was never exerted to enrich or aggrandise himself; and he either refused the rewards that were decreed to him for his plans and national paintings, or accepted the money that he might distribute it among indigent artists. Dr. Meyer found him an insulated man, devoted to his professional pursuits, generally silent upon politics, but still tenacious of those principles to which he had sacrificed the feelings of humanity and the good opinion of his countrymen.

Sublimity of imagination, fertility of invention, a noble simplicity of composition, truth of expression, accuracy of design, beauty of figure, warmth and harmony of colouring, are considered by our author as united in the finished pieces of David. The subject of his *Junius Brutus* is wonderfully conceived. At the vestibule of his house, the stern patriot is seated on the pedestal of the statue of *Dea Roma*, the protecting divinity of his country, before whom he had sworn to act as the judge, not as the father. His wife and daughters are coming forth to learn the fate of his sons; and they see the victors at the gate bearing the bloody corpse of one of them upon a bier. A more interesting moment could not have been imagined; and the execution is said to equal the design.

David was then employed upon that battle between the Romans and Sabines, to which the Roman matrons put an end by reconciling the two armies. ‘ In this picture,’ said he to his German visitant, ‘ I would have history speak to my country, that she may cease to sacrifice her children to horrible war.’ Of his pictures of the deaths of Pelletier and Marat, the artist is now ashamed: ‘ Go,’ said he, when Dr. Meyer desired to see them, ‘ go rather and look at my *Horatii* and



my Brutus; I composed them with more leisure in times more tranquil.'

Of the state of manufactures in France, at the time of his visit, Dr. Meyer speaks very unfavourably.

'The manufactures in France may be compared to the ruins of a magnificent building, which has sunk from the failure of the foundation. In the interior parts of the country, and in towns formerly the most flourishing, we perceive the effects of revolutionary convulsion, and the consequences of the most rancorous and furious hostilities that ever desolated France. In almost every district, the manufactures have been so far overwhelmed, that the hopes of re-establishing them are almost extinct. Hands and materials are deficient. Ingenious and active individuals, indeed, make occasional attempts; but their undertakings, though patronised by the government, and encouraged by public bodies, languish under a variety of wants.'

He concurs, however, with those writers who have exhibited a pleasing picture of the success of the agricultural efforts of the French. He affirms, that the country was never better cultivated; and he adds, 'The labourers, the most numerous and useful class of people in France, never were more happy than they are at present. They live at their ease, enjoy freedom, and are content. Is it then an idle phantasy to regard this respectable class of citizens as the support of the existing constitution, and to be of opinion that France will be indebted to them for her most brilliant prosperity? These cultivators will never again suffer themselves to be oppressed by the feudal yoke; but will in time accustom themselves to a sacrifice of the superfluity of their considerable profits, to support the country by moderate imposts, which have hitherto been very badly regulated.'

'How many motives has the French husbandman to be content! the fruits of his labour belong to himself; he is no longer crushed beneath the weight of taxes; the unhappy labourer is become a farmer, and the farmer a proprietor. Since the abolition of the feudal system, of the numerous seignorial rights, of the privileges of the nobility and clergy, his industry brings him a clear profit, and money flows into his coffers. But the voice of this peaceable happiness, of the calm enjoyment of these men, is not heard; it is stifled by the cries of those members of the community who have the talent and facility of proclaiming aloud their sufferings real or imaginary; and yet, of the Frenchmen who thus live in ease and happiness, sixteen millions do not form an exaggerated calculation.'

We would here close our quotations and remarks, if we were not tempted to select an anecdote demonstrative of the folly and rashness of suicide.

‘ Madame Auguié, having been personally attached to the queen of France, expected to suffer under the execrable tyranny of Robespierre. She often declared to her sister, madame Campan, that she never would wait the execution of the order of arrest, and that she was determined to die rather than fall into the hands of the executioner. Madame Campan endeavoured, by the principles of morality and philosophy, to persuade her sister to abandon this desperate resolution; and in her last visit, as if she had foreseen the fate of this unfortunate woman, she added, ‘ Wait the future with resignation; a happy chance may turn aside the fate which you fear, even in the moment when you believe the danger to be greatest.’ Soon afterwards, the guards appeared before the house of madame Auguié to take her to prison. Firm in her resolution to avoid the ignominy of execution, she ran to the top of the house, threw herself from the balcony, and was taken up dead. As they were carrying her corpse to the grave, the attendants were obliged to turn aside to let pass—the cart that conveyed Robespierre to the scaffold!’

In this work Dr. Meyer appears as a philanthropist and a man of science; but, in some instances, he is too partial to the French: his fragments, therefore, will not please the enemies of that nation.

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*Mémoire sur l'Ecoulement Electrique des Fluides dans les Vaisseaux capillaires; par le Medecin Carmoy de Paris.*

*An Essay on the electrical Motion of the Fluids in the capillary Vessels.*

THE present memoir is worthy of notice, as it tends to correct some of those views which the enthusiasm for a new discovery usually inspires, and which, received at first with too much facility, have with equal precipitance been transferred to almost every branch of philosophy, and to different parts of physiology and pathology. The first phænomena of electricity excited admiration; and, in the astonishment which some of its wonders raised, various particulars, imperfectly observed, were admitted as truths. The annals of medicine confirm this remark; for, though many have been undoubtedly cured by electricity, physicians have not always examined, with critical accuracy, the facts which they have published. They have believed too easily what they wished, and referred



to their favourite cause appearances which arose from other sources. Every motion of the body was soon supposed to be occasioned by electricity ; every disease had this fluid in excess or defect for its cause ; every remedy supplied the deficiency, or detracted from the superabundance. To this eagerness has succeeded perhaps too great distrust ; and we are now to begin with philosophic calmness, with rigorous precision, to examine the grounds of those hasty conclusions.

M. Ingenhoufz, not long since, published experiments, which deprive the electrical fluid of the honour of assisting vegetation. M. Carmoy's trials have been attended with a different result. It appears that, in a subject so complicated, some minute circumstances, which materially affected the result, were not attended to. In the present inquiry, the circumstances which require attention are not so numerous, nor does error so easily and unsuspectedly creep in : we may therefore depend more securely on the result.

No one has hitherto doubted, that electricity hastens the motions of fluids in capillary vessels : to bring this subject to the test was the object of our author. He employed, in his experiments, tubes of metal and of glass, of different forms. Those which were straight favoured the flow of water ; the longer was the tube, the flow was less copious ; and the diameters varied from  $\frac{1}{7}$  and  $\frac{1}{8}$  to  $\frac{1}{4}$  of a line. He at first made use of distilled water : but afterwards, on finding no great variation, he used common water. Sometimes the flow seemed to be increased by electricity, and sometimes diminished. We shall endeavour to ascertain the general result of these experiments.

A fluid which is electrified and flows through a capillary forms a continued stream, while, in an unelectrified state, it falls in drops : but the former point does not prove the flow to be increased ; for, in the latter case, the drop is large and massy, while the drops in the jet are very small, and smaller in proportion to the rapidity of the flow, the power of the electricity, and the attraction of the neighbouring bodies for the fluid. This phenomenon is connected with the tendency of electrified bodies towards those which are not electrified.

The first experiment was made with a straight tube of glass, planted at the bottom of a metallic vase ; it was 3 inches in length, and nearly  $\frac{1}{4}$  of a line in diameter. In a given time, more water ran out without the assistance of electricity than with it. When the length of the tube was diminished, the flow exceeded in a very small degree from the electrified tube. Our author then employed a tube of less diameter, of the length of four inches ; and the quantity which dropped out was reater when not electrified. In a tube of one half

of that length, the electricity seemed to have little effect. With two siphons, of the diameter of about  $\frac{1}{8}$  and  $\frac{1}{4}$  of a line, electricity appeared very slightly to accelerate the flow; and, in general, from electrified siphons it was always very inconsiderably increased; but, on a review of the whole of this series of experiments, the result is by no means in favour of the supposed influence of electricity.

The electricity in these trials was sometimes stronger than it was at other times. The jet of electrified fluid was constant; but it sometimes slackened, though it soon acquired additional velocity: if a non-electric approached it, the acceleration immediately took place; but it was obvious to the naked eye, that in gaining velocity the mass was lessened. Some variations appear, perhaps arising from minute bodies imperceptible in the water, occasionally from the air itself; for fluids moving in pipes are often impeded, if there be not a sufficient number of spiracula. These little impediments sometimes occur at the curvature, so that probably the experiments with siphons are less decisive.

In the next series of trials M. Carmoy employed both positive and negative electricity. He employed a siphon, of which the longest branch was 2 inches, and the shortest one inch: the diameter was the 5th or 7th part of a line: the electricity of each species was weak. In this series, the positively electrified siphon had its current scarcely at all increased: in the negatively electrified it was a little augmented. In the next series, when a metal tube was used of  $\frac{1}{4}$  line in diameter, the order of the two electricities remained the same; but the flow in the tube not electrified was the larger. In some additional experiments the excesses were sometimes on the one and sometimes on the other side; but, on the whole, the flow was greater from the tubes not electrified. As the excess, however, was small, and as the results were sometimes a little contradictory, all that can be at present admitted is, that electricity does not increase the motion of water through capillary tubes; yet, in cases where slight impediments occur, it has some effect in overcoming them. This conclusion, omitted by our author, we draw from the uniform increase of the flow from siphons, where in the curvature some little impediment always seems to exist. An argument, in opposition to his general conclusion, is adduced by M. Carmoy from the effect of electricity in dissipating a drop of water suspended to a tube. To this he replies, that the alleged influence of the electrical fluid is observable in tubes, whether capillary or not; and it has never been contended, that electricity increases the motion of fluids in those of the latter species.

‘Capillary tubes,’ he adds, ‘offer phenomena which are



with difficulty understood. The increase of the flow, if it were well founded, would not be easily explained. How could the flow be greater in proportion to the greater number of the obstacles, and the resistance of the tubes? The property of bodies electrified in the same way, is to repel each other; and the electricity of the drops of the fluid electrified in a tube, tends to separate them in every direction, one of which only can assist the flow, while the others must obstruct it. Instead of being accelerated, therefore, the course of the fluid must be retarded. The latter effect would undoubtedly take place, if bodies were electrified in the ratio of their mass, not in that of their surface. The interior part of a body, however, does not appear to be deprived of the electrical fluid; it is in general equally full; but this fluid, like the principle of heat, seems to reside in the interior parts of a body in a latent state, confined, fettered, and inactive in particular circumstances.

That the electrical fluid attaches itself to the internal surfaces of the capillary tubes and to the surface of the contained water, is undeniable. This interposition must therefore press on the water, which, being incapable of yielding, must escape, and flow with a proportional celerity; and this celerity must be augmented when we consider the water as not contiguous to the internal surface, so that it is not entangled by its viscosity, which would act in opposition to the power of gravity. Besides, the water, when it escapes from the tube, is attracted as a light body, and subdivided in a number of small jets; so that from these united causes the flow must be on the whole increased. Thus we perceive the cause of the acceleration of the velocity and the diminution of the mass. My experiments show, that these balance each other, since the flow is not, on the whole, augmented.

M. Carmoy, indeed, is at a loss to reconcile these experiments with the effects of electricity in increasing perspiration. That it increases the quickness of the pulse he denies; and he suggests some doubts whether it really augments the flow of the perspirable matter: yet his own trials seem to show that it may have this effect; for electricity agitates the fluid, and, when the vessel is composed of an irritable substance, may certainly increase its action. We must, however, conclude with the judicious remark of our author.—‘Analogy is often a deceitful guide. We cannot be secure in reasoning from the same principles on what passes in living and dead bodies. Let us closely attend to facts, and avoid equivocal conclusions; leaving to time the care of maturing our discoveries, and placing them in their proper order.’

*Mémoire sur le Sang ; par les Citoyens Parmentier et Deyeux.*

*A Disquisition respecting the Blood.*

THIS elaborate memoir was intended as an answer to a question which was proposed by the Royal Society of Medicine, and for which a prize was offered—"To determine, from modern chemical discoveries and accurate experiments, the nature of the changes which take place in the blood in inflammatory disorders, in fevers, in putrid diseases, and the scurvy."—Though modern chemistry has illustrated many parts of the vegetable and animal systems, the blood has not been examined with that strict attention which the subject deserves. The numerous treatises written on this fluid may seem to have exhausted the subject ; but the disputes which still continue with regard to some of its component parts, show that something remains to be ascertained. The changes in the blood, from disease, form also a very important part of the inquiry : and the uninformed reader will hear, with surprise, that for five hundred years different disorders have been attributed to changes in the blood, and the same disease has been, at different periods, ascribed to different and even opposite changes, without one decisive experiment having been made on it. To the blood, indeed, too much has been attributed : and, after Gaubius and Cullen had so strenuously, and for a time successfully, laboured to establish the positions, that solids form the fluids, and that the changes in the former constantly precede those of the latter, some late authors have brought us back to the old system of Harvey, and endeavoured to prove the blood to be, without a metaphor, the *vital fluid*.

Without farther preface, we shall proceed to give some account of the memoir before us. The writers first give a concise yet comprehensive view of what has been already ascertained, with respect to the nature and properties of the blood ; secondly, state their own experiments on the same subject ; and, thirdly, examine the changes in the different diseases pointed out by the question.

As it is not our object to take notice of what must be generally known, we shall immediately enter upon the second part, and give a concise account of the facts ascertained by the authors' experiments. The blood appears, from their examination, to consist of a volatile odorous principle, fibrous matter, albumen, sulphur, gelatinous matter, &c. The proportions of these principles are infinitely varied in individuals by age, temperament, and manner of living.

The odorous part is very sensible in fresh blood, and gradually flies off, so as to be wholly lost, when putrefaction begins. It is not attached to the serum, and is less sensible in various dis-



eases: in some, it wholly disappears. Its greatest affinity seems to be to the crassamentum; and, in its nature, it resembles what chemists have called the spiritus rector of vegetables.

The fibrous matter, if not in a state of dissolution, seems to be very minutely divided. It is obtained by agitation, or a dilution of fresh blood in water. In the former case, it appears in the form of filaments adhering together; in the second, in that of membranous pellicles; but chemical re-agents show these to be exactly the same. This matter is less tenacious in young people, and more so in adults; and this appears to be the chief variety of which it is susceptible; for, in health and disease, in putrid or inflammatory cases, if the age be the same, it scarcely varies in its qualities. It contributes to form the crassamentum, in consequence of its contraction from rest, and probably its loss of heat.

The red part is greatly varied in different persons, by causes which are not within the reach of calculation or observation. In young subjects, the red is generally very bright; in old ones, it is of a deeper colour. Our authors made many experiments to separate the colouring matter from the other ingredients, but without success: it always contained a part of the albumen, to which it has a great affinity; each is soluble in water, and insoluble in spirits. They seem, however, to be of opinion, that iron has a considerable share in the colour, and that it is dissolved in the water by means of a fixed alkali, probably soda.

It is singular, that the iron is found only in the red part; but what becomes of it when it has been separated from the blood, chemistry has not yet informed us. The muscular fibres, supposed to be formed from the red globules, do not contain a particle of iron.

The albumen is dissolved in the serum, while the blood continues unchanged; but on the slightest decomposition it separates, one part uniting itself with the serosity, the other with the fibrous and colouring matter: as the separation only takes place from the loss of water, the whole becomes of greater consistence. In this state it may again be dissolved by water; but, when separated by heat or by acids, its solubility in water remains no longer. The alkali, perhaps, contributes to the solubility: but the connection between the alkali and the albumen is slight, as heat, spirit of wine, and acids, destroy it. In chemical properties, the albumen resembles the white of an egg.

Sulphur is found to be an important ingredient in the albumen; since, where the latter occurs, as in the bile, the brain, and various secreted fluids, sulphur is always a part. Its state in these fluids is probably not the same; but it should be examined more particularly. Perhaps some of the worst diseases

are connected with its superabundance or its separation, as the most virulent fluids of the human frame are hepatic.

The soda is always in the blood, and probably assists the solution of the different ingredients, particularly the albumen and iron. Like the iron, the sulphur, and the neutral salts, it may be the consequence of animalisation.

The existence of the gelatinous matter has been denied by Rouelle and others; but M. Fourcroy found it, and it may, at any time, be separated by a coagulation of the serum. As watery fluids dissolve the jelly, the serum generally carries it away, or unites it with the soda, albumen, and other neutral salts. The proportion of it is never considerable, and it is constantly separating, perhaps to form the solid substance of the body. No change occurs in it from disease.

The water, as may be supposed, dissolves and unites all the ingredients. It is probably formed and decomposed during circulation; and, in consequence of its decomposition, it may contribute to repair the deficiencies in the system. The proportion of water is continually varying; and in no instance did a greater or less quantity appear to be connected with any disease.

Such are the results of the experiments of our two authors, confirming some opinions, and weakening or limiting others. In several parts of this analysis, we have anticipated their remarks on the blood in different diseases: but we shall now shortly notice their observations in the third part.

Our authors' remarks on the blood in inflammatory diseases, are very particular. The buff was found to consist wholly of the fibrous matter; the crassamentum under the buff was soft. The want of concretion of the albumen contained in the serum, and its milky hue, in consequence of heat, were remarkable appearances. With regard to the cause of the separation of the fibrous matter, these writers are in some doubt. The density of the blood contributes to it; for, when it is diluted, no buff appears. It rises to the top by the diminution of specific gravity; and perhaps a greater degree of fluidity than usual may be required. To us, the solution does not appear to be difficult. It occurs in cases where the action of the vessels is strong; and the blood is then subjected to a kind of agitation, which, out of the body, contributes usually to separate the fibrous matter. This substance, ready to separate when left at rest, rises to the top from its levity, and forms an homogeneous membrane. It is highly probable that the new membranes formed in different parts of the body, in consequence of inflammation, have the same origin: when, therefore, the fibrous matter separates in so large a proportion on the top, the rest of the crassamentum must lose the consistence which it would otherwise have had.



The blood of scorbutic patients, when examined by these gentlemen, differed very little from that of persons in health: it had not the spiritus rector, and showed a disposition to form a buffy coat. It was singular, they remark, that they should not have found the proportion of serum increased, as so much has been said of the dissolution of the blood of scorbutic individuals. They admit, that the apparent quantity of serum depends on many minute circumstances in the operation, the shape of the vessels, agitation, heat, &c. but contend, that, at least in scorbutic patients, the proportion of serum is not unusually large. The livid spots, the spontaneous hæmorrhages, &c. they attribute to a dilatation of the vessels from weakness.

In putrid fevers, the blood, taken early, was sometimes buffy and sometimes otherwise. Our investigators, however, always found a tendency to throw up a buffy coat. There seemed occasional varieties in the density of the crassamentum; but there was no marked or constant difference. When blood was taken in the later stages, it was not essentially different. On analysis, the variety observable was only that of inflammatory fevers; and there was no change peculiar to what is called the putrid stage of fevers. On distillation, no volatile alkali appeared, and the progress of spontaneous putrefaction was not more rapid than in the blood of a healthy person.

When the want of putridity in the blood is compared with the considerable and decided putrefaction of the secreted fluids, M. Parmentier and his associate are led to conclude, that the putrid leaven exists in the secreted fluids, and that only the blood which reaches these is infected. This, perhaps, may be the case; but, at all events, the result of these experiments will lead us to distrust the confident assertions of the humoral pathologists, and to rest on the sound doctrine of Gaubius and Cullen.

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*Voyage dans les Alpes, précédé d'un Essai sur l'Histoire Naturelle des Environs de Geneve; par Horace Benedict de Saussure. Tomes III. et IV. 4to. Neuchâtel.*

*Travels in the Alps, preceded by an Essay on the Natural History of the Environs of Geneva.*

HAVING in various parts of our journal selected extracts from the former volumes of this work, we have had occasion to speak of our naturalist in terms of praise. The particular account of his second tome occurs in our LXIId. vol. (p. 383); and we now turn to the continuation and conclusion of the journeys. They will form a proper supplement to those of

Spalanzani, and, taken together, they will afford, we trust, sufficient information to enable the reader to detect the fancies and the follies of some modern cosmogonists.

The second tour extended from Geneva to Genoa; and the travellers, Saussure and Pictet, returned through Provence. Their particular route lay through Annecy, Aix, over Mount Cenis, through Turin, Milan, Genoa, Nice, Frejus, Toulon, Marseilles, Avignon, Arles, Vienne, Lyons, and Geneva. From different places, excursions were made to examine the various objects of curiosity; and experiments, illustrative of points of philosophy, occurred on the mountains or the lakes. This journey, if followed minutely, would detain us too long: we shall therefore only mention some of the more particular objects, or the more important observations.

The first circumstance which attracts our notice is the stratum of grit, about a league and a half from Annecy, in a vertical position, though the stones are rounded, and the whole covered with a rounded gravel. The superior strata are horizontal. This stratum continues vertical for near 100 toises, in a straight line, and must have been formed by the ground on one side yielding, and also, as M. de Saussure supposes, by some additions on the opposite side. The phenomenon is singular in mountains of that order. The water of St. Paul, in the neighbourhood of Aix, is from  $95^{\circ}$  to  $100^{\circ}$  of Fahrenheit; yet various minute animals inhabit it. Our author discovered in it two new tremellæ, which he thinks are capable of voluntary motion. On referring, however, to his own remarks, in Rozier's journal for December 1790, we think there is reason to doubt of this power, which would alone raise the lowest vegetable to the rank of animal.

In the road from Aix towards Mount Cenis, various devastations occur, from the mountains falling in part into the valleys. Near Aiguebelle, a village was destroyed by a mass of rocks. In this neighbourhood is a rich mine of copper, from a yellow pyrites, which produces annually 3750 cwt. of fine copper. From the furnace, spherules of copper, of a surprising brilliancy, generally hollow, are thrown; and it is an object of some curiosity to determine what fluid expands these cupreous pellicles. Perhaps the copper itself, brought into an æriform state (as Spalanzani has rendered it probable, that the substance even of lavas may assume this form), may contribute to their expansion.

In this part of Savoy, the writer supposes that an engagement took place between Hannibal and the Allobroges. 'If that commander' (he says) 'ascended the Arc in his passage over the Alps, as M. Abauzit thinks, the Allobroges probably fought their first battle with him between Aiguebelle and St. Jean de Maurienne; and in this conflict he lost a part of



his rear guard. This valley, indeed, is often contracted in very narrow defiles, shut up by very steep mountains. On going from Aiguebelle, we met, almost immediately, with a very large rock, which nearly shuts up the valley.

The description of the copper-mine of St. George is curious. The veins are large and rich, and are easily worked; and the mine is free to every peasant. The neighbouring inhabitants consequently neglect agriculture, and dig copper, selling it to those who take advantage of the competition, require constant abatements, and leave the poor miner indigent and miserable.

Near St. Jean de Maurienne, the vast beds of gypsum are remarkable: they rest against the primitive mountains, and sometimes cover them. The colour of this substance, when pure, is beautifully white; the grain brilliant; the strata horizontal.

The firs of the forest of Bramant are small and crooked. This tree, indeed, rarely grows straight to its majestic height, except in the regions of the north. It approaches to this state of perfection when crowded and kept probably from the light; for, as soon as any aspiring tree grows above the rest, it puts out lateral branches, which divert it from the perpendicular direction.

From Lanbourg (Lane le bourg) our travellers began to ascend Mount Cenis; and to the chapter which relates to that village, some useful directions for ascending the mountain are added. Mount Cenis is an object of no small importance to the traveller and naturalist. Its surface, below its highest pic, is covered with verdure. The plain is watered by a beautiful lake, which abounds with fine trout. The highest point of the mountain is about 1060 toises above the Mediterranean; and the lake is about 80 toises less. The rock consists of a calcareous micaceous schistus, covered with gypsum. The latter is generally disposed in horizontal strata, and is clearly of secondary formation: the naturalist, therefore, will have no difficulty in accounting for the fish, as the whole mountain, at whatever height, must have been covered with water; and many proofs remain, that the lake, and the little river which issues from it, were once more considerable.

The plain of Mount Cenis is open to the Italian coasts: the temperature, therefore, is much milder than could be expected from its altitude. The Cenis is the river which falls from the lake; and, as may be expected in a descent so rapid, it forms frequent cascades. The spray of these cascades is said by M. Tralles to be electrical; but M. de Saussure found no marks of electricity.

This mountain, from Grande-croix to Novaleze, consists of four grand divisions of micaceous schistus, alternately effervescent and non-effervescent, as mixed with calcareous earth

or quartz. The tendency of the strata is horizontal; and these are divided by fissures perpendicular to their plane, sinking on each side from different causes. In those parts where the atmosphere is confined by rocks, probably in consequence of vertical winds, the barometer is not calculated for an accurate mensuration of the heights.

M. de Saussure ascended Mount Michel, the highest accessible pic of Mount Cenis; and he describes particularly the rocks of which it consists. We can only remark, that, on this point, he found much serpentine and talc, which, as magnesian stones, show that it was once immersed in water. Some granite, recently formed, appeared in the clefts of the schistus. It is not easy to ascertain whence the feldt-spar was derived: the other ingredients are in abundance.

The philosophical experiments on Mount Michel are important. This spot is 782 toises above the lake, and 1762 above the level of the Mediterranean. As a fog surrounded the summit, the hygrometer pointed to extreme moisture; the electrometer was at first at two lines, afterwards at  $1\frac{1}{2}$ ; the thermometer was below the point of congelation: At the termination of the fog, the rarity of the air did not increase the evaporation of æther nearly so much as it did that of water: the heat of boiling water was about  $173^{\circ}$  of Fahrenheit. The 'smoking liquor' of Boyle did not lose its volatility, as Mels. Mongès and Lamanon supposed it to have done on the pic of Teneriffe: the evaporation was rather augmented, and its effervescence with vitriolic acid was more violent; and the appearances of the solutions of iron and copper did not resemble those which the French voyagers observed. The quickness of the pulse was certainly increased. At the openings to the plain of Mount Cenis from Piedmont and Lombardy, clouds were continually driving towards the mountain; but, on the plain, they disappeared, being repelled by the mountains, and dissolved with the assistance of their heat. When the rocks were cooled, however, these clouds were again condensed in fogs and in rain—proofs, in our author's opinion, of the vertical winds, of which M. de Luc has denied the existence.

'On coming from Savoy,' says M. de Saussure, 'the traveller is enchanted with the delightful vegetation of the vicinity of Novaleze: the vines supported by the trees, and even by the fruit-trees, cover the whole country, and still allow the earth under them to produce a fruitful harvest. I had left the meadows of Mount Cenis already withered and crisped by the hoar frost, and found, at Novaleze, the beautiful and varied verdure which characterises the beginning of autumn. Its copious and different productions give a smiling appearance to the winding valley. The surrounding mountains are covered with trees, which conceal their substance; and we are obliged



to search for it in the surrounding ruins.'—These *debris* are the micaceous schistus of Mount Cenis; and the inhabitants pay dearly for the beauty of the landscape, as the warm moist air injures the constitution. Goitres are here a common disease.

The road from Novaleze to Turin affords nothing peculiarly striking; nor shall we add, from the little which our author has said of this capital, to what travellers have so often repeated. The recapitulation also of the various strata may be omitted in the present sketch.

The account of the excursion to the church of Sapergne deserves attention; but it is too long for an extract; and the analysis of the hydrophanous stones of Musinet would not, in their full extent, be interesting. It is sufficient to remark, that M. de Saussure combats, very successfully, the opinion of M. Beauvoisin, that these stones are the re-union of the separated component parts of serpentines, though he admits many of that author's chemical opinions, particularly the reciprocal solution of different earths—of clay, for example—by flint, &c.

The journey from Turin to Milan furnishes some singular remarks. The flints, which lie on the surface near Turin, are covered by vegetable mould, and successively by thick strata of clay, by sand and gravel. The whole tract is a perfect plain, and has apparently been cultivated from remote ages. The soil was probably brought by torrents of water from the neighbouring mountains, which, with their original velocity, carried away the flints, sand, &c. but when this velocity was diminished, the flints began to subside, while sufficient force remained in the flood expanding through the plains to carry the gravel and the clay. Hence it is evident that vegetation does not produce sand, but only the vegetable mould; for the latter often rests on the flints without any interposition of sand. From various observations our author thinks that the increase of vegetable mould is limited by its decomposition, and that by its thickness the antiquity of the globe cannot be estimated.

At Novi, the great road is connected with the mountains. These are a branch of the Alps separating the plains of Piedmont from the sea: extending on the east, they assume the appellation of Apennines; under which name they pass through the whole of Italy. The mountains which, on the east and west, inclose the gulph of Genoa, are united to the Alps without interruption.

Our author failed to Porto-fino, to examine the temperature of the sea; and he also surveyed the cape. It is a breccia of rounded flints, accumulated by some violent current from the lower parts of the Apennines, once covered by the sea. The mountain is divided by cavities, worn by numerous torrents; the whole view is highly unpleasing. The temperature of the

air was about  $53^{\circ}$  — that of the sea, at 886 feet, was nearly  $59^{\circ}$  of Fahrenheit.

The road from Genoa to Nice, along the shore, affords many geological remarks. The most interesting are those on the banks of sand and the caverns of the cliffs. Some of the cavities, usually attributed to the pholades, appeared to our philosopher to be the effects of partial decompositions, as they were not regular, and as no shells remained. Sand, he supposes with M. de Luc, is not always abraded quartz, but is formed by a kind of crystallisation. The vaulted caverns of the rocks would not have surprised him if he had witnessed the violent waves of the Atlantic, and even of the channel, which, on bursting into the cavern, are repelled by its extremity, and raised in a watery arch.

In the neighbourhood of Nice the thermometer, at the depth of 1800 French feet, was about  $53^{\circ}$ , while the temperature of the air was about  $62^{\circ}$ . This, M. de Saussure shows, is the mean temperature of the sea, while the cold of the lakes of Switzerland is much more intense. On an average, the heat of the water is about  $42^{\circ}$  \* at the bottom of the lakes of Thun, Brienz, Lucerne, Constance, Geneva, Neuchâtel, Bienne, Anneci, and Bourget. Various arguments are adduced to obviate the idea of the derivation of this cold from the rivers; and there is no great probability of its being the consequence of subterraneous drains from the glaciers: yet on the latter hypothesis we would rather lean; for our author's objections do not seem insurmountable. The cold winds which issue from caverns,—winds colder than the mean temperature of the earth,—seemingly arise from a similar cause; and these sometimes issue at a great distance from ice. It is, in the opinion of this writer, probable, that the mean heat of the earth has been too highly estimated: on the other hand, the great cold of subterraneous winds may be produced by evaporation. This question is discussed at considerable length, and the whole disquisition is very curious. We could wish that the philosophical parts of these volumes were selected as independent essays. In our present circumstances, we can only remark, that, at the depth of more than 30 feet in the ground, the variations of the seasons are perceptible; with this difference, that the heat gradually accumulating or gradually penetrating, proceeds very slowly to these regions; so that the greatest heat happens about December, and the greatest cold in June or July.

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\* All these degrees, taken by Reaumur's thermometer, we have reduced to Fahrenheit's standard. REV.



From Nice the travellers proceeded to Frejus. 'High mountains,' it is observed, 'defend Nice from the northern blasts, and smaller hills more closely encircle the city and its gardens: thus the rays of the sun are concentrated, and a perpetual spring reigns in this spot, which renders it so beneficial to those valetudinarians who dread the cold of winter in more elevated regions.' From December to March, the medium of the noon-day heat was about  $54^{\circ}$ ; of the morning temperature  $45^{\circ}$ . In the neighbourhood of Frejus, the reputed lava appeared to be only the mandelstein of the Germans, a glandular rock; and the supposed volcano, on which Frejus is said to have been built, seems never to have existed.

In his second tour, M. de Saussure made an excursion to the mountains of St. Beaume, and to their projecting extremity, Cape Roux. About a league from Frejus he found some porous stones, which seemed to have been calcined, but it was certainly from a fire which had not penetrated below the surface, and which was perhaps accidental. In all these mountains there was no real trace of any former volcanic fire.

He proceeded to the Hermitage, in which the gardens are regular, and beautifully arranged, with two fountains, which constantly throw out jets of the coldest water. He then ascended the highest part of the chain, in which he found plants of temperate regions, so that its altitude cannot be considerable: the base of the mountain is porphyry.

Hyerès and the neighbouring islands consist of schistus (micaceous, argillaceous, or calcareous) in strata from east to west; these strata, if not primitive, are in an intermediate state between the primary and secondary. The mountain of Birds, which M. de Saussure ascended, for the purpose of observing the connection between the calcareous and vitrescible strata, is described with great luxuriance, as affording a prospect brilliant, varied, and extensive. Its substance consists of spherical masses of calcareous spar, composed of concentric laminae: each lamina is formed of needles, converging to the centre of the mass.

'The view from the summit was truly magnificent: on the right, towards the sea, the town and harbour of Toulon, and the coasts still more distant, adorned with buildings of every kind, were seen: on the left appeared the road of Hyerès, its islands and its basin. Inland we saw the rich valley of Cures, and of Trois Souliers,—the most fertile region of Provence,—and the town of Hyerès, in an amphitheatre formed by a hill, crowned by a picturesque rock, with its beautiful gardens and manufactories. The whole united vast structures, and the maritime force of the Mediterranean, with the prospect of a country the most fertile, and in a climate the most delightful, of the whole globe, displaying the efforts of nature

and of man, the power and happiness which he could exert and enjoy, if he were capable of deriving due profit from his acquisitions. We saw the primitive chain of the hills of Hyeres pass to the north of this mountain, and proceed from east to west; a direction more remarkable, as it is that of the strata of the islands of Hyeres. It is, indeed, a general fact in the Alps—and it is pleasing to verify it in its last branch—that the strata follow the general direction of the chains, or the branches of the chains. It is curious also to observe this primitive confined by two calcareous chains; and the alternation between primitive and secondary mountains shows, at least, that geologists should reject or admit, with much reserve, the ancient division of the globe into sandy, calcareous, schistous, and vitrescible bands.

The mountain of Caume, and the extinguished volcanos of Broussant and of Evenos, are afterwards described; but we find, in this account, no observation of importance. The mountains are dry and barren, burned up by the sun, or ravaged by torrents. The few plants which the scanty soil affords are taken by the peasants for fuel or for litter, and any increase of vegetable earth is thus prevented; yet records show that these mountains were formerly clothed with forests. The Provençal peasant is represented as at first suspicious, but as soon becoming cheerful and hospitable, if addressed with frankness and complaisance.

In his way to Marseilles, M. de Saussure visited the extinguished volcanos of Ollioules, described by M. Faujas de St. Fond. The mountains in the neighbourhood are low, without any regular arrangement; and it is certain, that they form no link between the Alps and the Pyrenees.

He describes the different volcanic remains at Beaulieu with mineralogical accuracy. He there found basaltes, the appearance of which, in his opinion, shows that this volcano was once submarine.

The neighbourhood of Aix is calcareous, and of secondary formation. The gypsum forms vast beds; and clay and marl constitute the chief varieties. This region is curious for the impressions of fish, insects, and vegetable productions: the fish are chiefly those of fresh water; but the claws of some sea-crabs also occur, and occasionally a whole crab is found: the insects are sometimes terrestrial, but chiefly aquatic; and insects of very warm climates, particularly the mantis religiosa, have been discovered. The leaves are principally those of aquatic plants; but those of pear-trees, nut-trees, &c. have been also found: these are chiefly discovered in a calcareous schistus; but similar impressions are observed in very hard calcareous blocks. Above thirty species of fish are to be distinguished in this indurated state. The collection of



M. Segnier of Nîmes is rich in this line; it contains eighty-three species, of which Bolca, a mountain near Verona, furnished thirty-three; these are mostly of the kinds that abound in the neighbouring seas; but two resemble those of the coasts of Brasil, and two are unknown. Since that time the catalogue has been extended to 105 species, including many which have been supposed to be peculiar to the seas of Asia and America. M. de Saussure endeavours to explain these remains from some lakes emptying, and again filling, by which means fish are successively entangled in the calcareous mud that gradually hardens. It is not improbable, he thinks, that the same lake may be filled successively with salt and with fresh water; but this hypothesis is too extravagant, and we are rather inclined to believe, as we have often hinted, that the sea is the natural habitation of fish, and that fresh water is an element in which, though they occasionally live, they commonly degenerate: to very few species is fresh water a natural habitation.

The journey from Aix to Avignon, and the excursion to Vaucluse, furnish nothing which the general reader would find interesting. The country is chiefly calcareous, with an occasional mixture of flint and porphyry. From Avignon to Montelimar the country is flinty and barren, except in the lower parts, where the Rhone occasionally brings its fertilising mud. The vast masses of basaltes near Montelimar have greatly perplexed mineralogists. No volcano now exists in the neighbourhood; and these masses are too large to have been brought by any current: the explanations hitherto given are very unsatisfactory. The Rhone has evidently changed its bed, and may, perhaps, have overwhelmed or destroyed the former volcano, leaving only these indestructible remains. The tripoli of Montelimar is examined at some length: M. de Saussure thinks, that it is a fine petrosiliceous sand, deposited by water; and observes, that it does not always require the action of fire to fit it for the workman's use.

From Montelimar he made an excursion to the Chateau de Grignan, a place rendered famous by the residence of the daughter of madame de Sevigné: it is built on a steep mountain, which rises suddenly from a barren calcareous plain; and it displays all the melancholy grandeur, all the massy security, of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. The picture of madame de Sevigné, preserved in the castle, does not show any striking marks of vivacity: it is that of a fair woman with regular features. Madame de Grignan appears much more animated.

At a short distance from Montelimar, in a chalky soil, the botanist begins to find the southern plants growing wild; for it is generally true, that tender shrubs resist the cold

better in a dry than in a moist soil. The rounded flints of Here are particularly described. The author proceeded to Arles, after examining the plain of Cran, the Campus Herculeus of the ancients, where Jupiter was supposed to rain showers of stones on the sons of Neptune, with whom Hercules contended. This plain is twenty square leagues in extent, of a triangular shape, pointing towards the sea. It is covered with rounded flints; and nothing, for a very considerable extent, can be seen but the sky and these flints.

At Beaucaire, M. de Saussure found solemn prayers for the cessation of the mistral, a north-west wind, very salutary to the inhabitants, as it drives off the noxious air from the marshes to the south of Languedoc and Provence, but injurious from its coldness and violence to the harvests. The mistral arises from an eddy of the winds blowing against the amphitheatre formed by the Alps and Pyrenees, and cooled by these mountains.

The excursion to the district of the Hermitage is interesting to the admirers of the excellent wine denominated from that spot. The country is covered with rounded flints; but the hills behind are of decomposed granite. These hills are dug out in a convex form, and thus increase the power of the sun. The granites of this region claim much of our author's notice. We find them alternated with sand and gravel. The union of the calcareous strata and of granite eluded his attention: at their junction, the stones are softened, and fall down in promiscuous masses, so as to conceal their union. In these granites, chalcedony is occasionally formed; the analysis of which is subjoined.

From Vienne the author and his friend proceeded to Lyons, over a country of sand, gravel, and rounded flints. Lyons is wholly in a granitic country. In the journey from that town to Geneva, no remarkable incidents or observations occurred.

(To be continued.)

*Annales de Chimie, Vol. IX. X. XI. (Continued from Vol. XII. New Arrangement, p. 543.)*

*Annals of Chemistry.*

WE are pleased with an opportunity of resuming our survey of the progressive volumes of this important work—an opportunity which various circumstances have long precluded us from enjoying.

In the first article which now offers itself to our notice M. Guyton renders it probable, that many of the changes apparently produced by heat on oxyds of metals, in vessels



hermetically closed, are occasioned by the erosion of the glass. M. Seguin's experiments on the combustion of hydrogenous gas in close vessels, and the mistaken idea, that barytes, magnesia, &c. are metallic oxyds, have been sufficiently noticed.

The abbé Haüy has found that the property of becoming electrical by heat, supposed to be confined to the tourmalin and the topaz of Brasil, exists also in the crystallised oxyd of zinc and the magnesian-calcareous borate. M. Vauquelin's analysis of the semen masculinum, is new and curious. Like most of the animal fluids, the blood, bile, milk, tears, gonorrhœal discharge, &c. it is alkaline, and found to contain 0,01 of soda. The crystals deposited, on exposure to the air, are of a transparent calcareous phosphat; and other crystals, resembling white opaque bodies, form in it some days afterwards. In moist air, it becomes yellow, and produces a large proportion of the byssus septica. It is not soluble in water, unless first melted; but, when it has undergone this change, water will dissolve it, though dried. The proportion of calcareous phosphat (the earth of bones) is  $\frac{1}{100}$ . The spontaneous liquefaction which it undergoes is remarkable, as it seems not to be the consequence either of the loss or accession of any matter: the principle by which the calcareous phosphat is also dissolved, is no less so. The remaining bulk is almost wholly water, with 0,03 of mucilage.

M. Bouvier found, in 1000 parts of the coralline of Corsica, 92 of sea-salt, 602 of gelatinous matter, 112 of calcareous sulphate, 110 of vegetable matter, and 75 of calcareous carbonate, with trifling quantities of iron, magnesia, calcareous phosphat, and flint.

MM. D'Arcet, Fourcroy, and Berthollet, have given a masterly report of M. Loyfel's work on the principles of the art of making glass. Of this report we can give no adequate idea, but shall notice the author's new thermometer, for measuring high degrees of heat. Mr. Wedgwood's measure depends on the contraction of clay; that of M. Loyfel on its tenacity. The cylinders of the latter are exposed to different degrees of heat, which are determined by the force afterwards required to break them. In his experiments the range is only from 17 degrees of Reaumur to 234°.

Berthollet's Elements of the Art of Dying are now known in an English dress. The memoir on the art of enameling, by M. Brougniard, is curious; but it cannot conveniently be abridged.

The new analysis of the earth of Marmarosch in Hungary, shows, that it has been too hastily concluded to be a calcareous phosphat. It is in reality a sparry fluor, with a little phosphoric acid. Its light is pale.

Since the discovery of Dr. Priestley, that the venous blood absorbs oxygene in the lungs, and thus acquires its florid colour—and also since the subsequent one of Dr. Crawford, that this union of oxygene alters its specific heat—physiologists have doubted, whether this change was at once produced in the lungs, or by the gradual combination of the oxygene with the hydrogen and carbone, in the circulatory system. M. Hassenfratz has made some decisive experiments on this subject, and has shown, that the lungs are not the only focus of the heat occasioned by the separation of the hydrogen, but that the same process is gradually continued through the whole course of the circulating blood. Dr. Duncan, many years ago, suggested the same opinion.

M. Seguin's memoir on the eudiometer, claims particular attention. The common instrument shows only the proportion of oxygene in any given air, without discovering the miasmata, which may make even the best airs pestilential. In fact, the air of a fever ward, which almost deprives those who enter of their power of breathing, appears to the common eudiometer in a good state. The different plans of several other chemists are equally uncertain. Our author thinks his method less so. He recommends the destruction of the vital air by means of combustion, and the neutralisation of the acids produced by means of alkali.

A long memoir by M. Fourcroy, on the refinement of bell-metal, concludes the ninth volume. The object is to procure the copper; and, for this purpose, the best process, in his opinion, is that of oxydating the metal with salt or manganese.

M. Giobert, of Turin, who found some drops of oil on distilling the oxygenated muriatic acid, persists in supporting the reality of these appearances; but M. Fourcroy and others think it highly probable that the oil proceeds from the lute.

M. Raymond procured the hydrogenous phosphorated gas by the addition of moistened lime to phosphorus; and he thinks, that the oxy en, which acidifies the phosphorus, and renders it a menstruum for the lime, proceeds from the decomposition of the water, which leaves the hydrogen free to dissolve the phosphorus.

A curious work on the tar of coal, from the pen of M. Faujas, is noticed by M. Hassenfratz. The writer treats of it's use in careening vessels, as well as of the different productions of coal; such as solid bitumen (pitch), mineral oil, naphtha, volatile alkali, the styptic water necessary for tanners, lamp-black and coke. Lord Dundonald's method of extracting tar from coal is added; and researches on the origin of coal and its various kinds are also given.



The chemical papers from the Royal Academy of Science<sup>s</sup> at Turin, are not very important. We may remark, that M. Giobert is under a mistake in supposing the Prussian acid to resemble the phosphoric acid, in the same way that the volatile vitriolic does the common acid. In the ordinary process, Prussian blue contains accidentally, but not necessarily, some phosphoric acid; for, if made in the Swedish method, the latter is not found. The same author's account of the phosphorism of vitriolated tartar is more curious: the light is evidently derived from that of the sun.—M. St. Real's paper on tanning is interesting. The art of the tanner consists in separating every thing from the skin except the animal fibres, and in joining these completely with the astringent substance. The gelatinous animal matter is dissolved by about 122 degrees of Fahrenheit; but the cellular substance will require more than 144 degrees. The count de Morozzo thinks, that the temperature of lakes towards the end of the summer is less at the bottom than at the surface, but that the difference does not exceed 7° of Reaumur.—M. Bonvoisin describes the preparation of the radical acetous acid from the crystals of copper, and recommends it as a slight and easy caustic. M. de Saussure's description of the cyanometer and diaphanometer, or instruments to measure the colour and transparence of the sky, cannot properly be understood in the abridgment before us. The effects of light, on separating the oxygen from the oxygenated muriatic acid, have been noticed in some late essays, and have afforded the foundation of an ingenious theory.

The chemical papers in the Berlin Transactions, are wholly the work of M. Acharde. In the first, he endeavours to prove, that the heat of boiling water is not invariable. In vessels of the same materials, the heat varies in proportion to the aperture. In bad conductors of heat, as glass, the degree is uniform; but, in vessels which conduct it better, the variety is considerable. To obtain a steady invariable degree, the vessels should be of glass, and the opening small, or covered with a funnel full of cold water to condense the vapours. The other papers are trifling.

Among the discoveries announced in Crell's Journal, we may notice an acidulous soap, made by adding half a pound of white sulphuric acid to a pound of the purest oil of olives. The articles are mixed together, and exposed to the cold air, so that the superfluous acid may rise above the white coagulum. The acid is next separated by a filtre, and the remainder agitated, till it acquires a firm consistence: it is then soluble in water. The Iceland spar, supposed to be electrical like the tourmalin, is found to be so only in consequence of friction. All the transparent calcareous spars, which have a

double reflection, are electrical in the same way. M. Treffy thinks that borax is derived from animal substances, as it may be employed in preparing a red, which can only be imitated by animal matter, and as the earth, in which it is found, contains the *debris* of animals. As the phosphoric acid is vitrifiable like the boracic, he is of opinion, that the latter contains the former.

MM. Fourcroy and Vauquelin have given an elaborate analysis of the tears and the mucus of the nostrils. The former contain a peculiar mucilage, sea-salt, with an excess of soda, and an almost insensible quantity of phosphat of lime. The mucus is nearly of the same nature, thickened by stagnation and by the union of oxygen, while the soda is neutralised by the carbonic acid of the respired air. It is remarkable, that the fumes of the oxygenated muriatic acid will give every symptom of the most violent catarrh to those who admit them by inspiration, and that even smelling to them will frequently produce strong catarrhal symptoms.

The liver of the ray (*Raja batis* Lin.) is comparatively very large and of a delicate structure, containing a great quantity of oil, of a salt taste, and a fishy smell. M. Vauquelin found, that the oil contained between the molecules amounted to one half of the weight of the liver. The liquidity of this substance shows how much the limited respiration of the animal influences the consistence of its fatty parts. The human liver is oily, and in some diseases strikingly so. The livers of birds, and particularly of geese, exposed to a high temperature, and fed with milk, assume this character. The blood probably passing slowly through the vessels of the abdominal viscera, allows the carbone to unite more intimately with the oxygen and the hydrogen. Where the respiration is slow and interrupted, the union will be more complete.

M. Gentil's memoir on the colours of bodies, seen through coloured glasses, is very elaborate. The account of the various appearances it is not easy to abridge; and it is less necessary, as the whole series is the consequence of an optical illusion. The glass was found to be in substance greenish, and the red colour to be derived from a stratum of vitrified metallic matter. The principal effect was a diminution of the solar light, combined with the hues afforded by the glass and the stratum.

M. Fourcroy's memoir, on the union of the sulphuric acid with mercury, is interesting, as it contains a clear explanation of a medicine, the chemical nature of which has not been hitherto understood—we mean the turbith mineral. He describes, 1. the pure or neutralised sulphat of mercury, crystallised in prisms, soluble with difficulty, and



forming, with muriatic acid, the *mercurius dulcis*; 2. The sulphat of mercury with excess of acid, more soluble, but reduced, by the water which dissolves the superabundant acid, to the first species; 3. Sulphat of mercury with excess of oxyd, viz. the turbith mineral. It certainly contains some acid, but a larger proportion of oxygen, which it acquires from the decomposition of a part of the sulphuric acid by heat, absorbing oxygen also from the atmosphere, or attracting it from the water. The mercury is super-oxygenated; and some separate oxygen seems also to be combined with it. The experiments on the decomposition of these sulphats are not less interesting. The volatile alkali decomposes them only in part; the fixed alkali more completely. The former unites in part to the portion of the mercurial sulphat not decomposed, and forms a triple salt, which differs from an union of the two sulphats, since the acid can saturate more of the mercury and alkali in this state, than it can do when they are separate. In the process, part of the ammoniac is decomposed, and precipitates a part of the mercury in a black powder, which the action of light is capable of reducing.

The eleventh volume commences with some observations, by M. Berthollet on the dying efforts of the German anti-phlogistians; but these need not detain us. M. Clonet has attempted to prove, that the colouring matter of the Prussian blue is the result of the combination of volatile alkali with carbone. This point he has not completely ascertained.

M. Hassenfratz' memoir 'on sea salt, on the manner in which it is dispersed over different parts of this globe, and on the different means of procuring it,' deserves much attention. Salt is often found in granitic countries, and among the mountains styled primitive, deposited seemingly by sea-water, which, overflowing at different and sometimes distant periods, produces, by evaporation, successive beds of salt. In other countries, it is found among the mountains of secondary production; but it is then more impure, and is usually mixed with bituminous earth, probably the remains of decayed vegetables. Wherever a salt spring occurs, this writer advises an examination of its source, as it will probably lead to extensive beds of salt. In secondary mountains, the salt is on the tops; and the surfaces of those mountains, in which mines exist, are usually covered with fragments of gypsum, sea-shells, &c.

M. Sennebier found, that light, contrary to the opinion of M. Berthollet, had no effect on oils, when the air was excluded. When they were exposed to the light only, no change occurred, until the green matter had produced pure air: then the usual alterations of glariness, increased consistence and rancidity, followed. The light, however, greatly

accelerates the effect of air. Pure air seems to combine with the oily parts, and produce the change which gives them the title of drying oils. *Ætherial* oils are thus changed by air alone; but the fat oils require to be boiled with the oxyd of lead, which imparts oxygen, and separates the mûcilage. Fat oils, which have experienced the united influence of air and light, resist the freezing effects of cold, like the drying oils.

The memoir of M. Hassenfratz, on many vast masses of stone in different countries, deserves our notice. He maintains that these immense rocks, in picturesque and almost regular order, like our Stone-henge, cannot with any degree of probability be attributed either to human exertions or the effects of violent currents. From a concurrence of observations on the masses of granite near Montpellier, on those of calcareous stone near Toulouse, and on the grit near Fontainebleau, he shows, that they are masses of indestructible stone, united in strata with those of which the air can disunite the component parts. From this view, he traces with perspicuity the different methods in which all the varieties of these appearances may have been produced. We have little doubt, that this is the whole secret of the various masses in Great-Britain, which have so much engaged the attention of philosophers, and have been attributed to the Druids, &c.

M. Chaptal describes the method of making, from the thread of silk-worms, a very thin transparent web, which will even confine inflammable air, and may probably become of great use in the arts.

The memoir of MM. Vauquelin and Fourcroy, on the causes of the errors which occur in assaying unrefined saltpetre by a saturated solution of nitre, is not generally interesting.

M. Grossart, having stated some of the more general properties of the elastic resin, gives us his method of making tubes and other instruments from it. He cuts off laminae from one of the common bottles, softens them, and then winds them round a mould. If pressed together in this half-dissolved state, they cohere at their edges, and form the instrument required. M. Fabroni has found that petroleum completely dissolves this resin.

M. Hallé has collected those facts of modern chemistry which respect animal and vegetable analyses, to assist his attempt for explaining the theory of the animalisation and the assimilation of aliments. He finds, in the vegetable food, the principles of animal matter, and thinks that the process of animalisation consists in increasing the quantity of azote, and diminishing that of carbone. This pro-



ness he has followed in the intestines, in the respiratory system, and in that of perspiration by the skin. It is effected by the union of oxygen. The memoir, upon the whole, is satisfactory.

Some doubt had arisen respecting the union of the superabundant oxygen with the vitriolic acid, by a distillation of it from manganese. M. Giobert has shown, that the acid can be oxygenated, and has pointed out the use of this compound. Muriatic acid can deprive the vitriolic of its oxygen, though the latter retains the air longer. The use of the oxygenated sulphuric acid is chiefly in bleaching.

M. Fourcroy has given an analysis of a very rare substance, the milky fluid from which the elastic resin is produced. The gum is dissolved in this fluid, and separated by the air, not by evaporation, but by the absorption of oxygen; and it thence assumes a brownish colour. In distillation, it furnishes volatile alkali from the azote which it contains. This resin resembles glutinous rather than oily substances; but it is more oily, and contains more hydrogen, than common gluten.

M. Hassenfratz, in his memoir on the kind of country in which coal abounds, gives a good general abstract of geology, and then proceeds to the marks which point out coal. The subject has some novelty in France; but, in England, it is sufficiently known.

M. Parmentier's memoir on the nature and *modus operandi* of manures, is by no means worthy of praise. It contains few of the more important principles, and is incomplete and unsatisfactory.—We must pursue the twelfth and the subsequent volumes in another article.

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*Des Caractères extérieures des Fossiles ; traduit de l'Allemand de M. A. G. Werner, par le Traducteur des Mémoires de Chymie de Scheele. Paris. 12mo.*

*A Dissertation on the exterior Characters of Fossils, translated from the German of Werner, by the Translator of Scheele's Chemical Memoirs.*

TO review, at this time, a treatise first published in 1774, may require an apology, or some satisfactory reasons for the delay. In reality, the treatise of Werner was for many years little noticed even in Germany, and scarcely known in France, till it was translated a few years ago. It has scarcely yet reached many well-informed mineralogists of this country; and from the frequent reference to it, in some late works, particularly in the travels of M. de Saussure, it may be necessary to give some account of it.

The translation which is now in our hands, is the work of madame Picardet. Not content, however, with a mere transfusion of the original into the language of France, she procured from the author a great number of corrections and additions, which she incorporated in the work, and introduced explanatory notes, with some alterations of those passages, which later inquiries had shown to be inaccurate. Her style is pure, easy, and perspicuous; and this merit is the more extraordinary, as the German idiom is not very suitable to the French, and the language of Werner is often singular.

The great objects of a naturalist are to class all bodies, and to distinguish genera and species. The classification of organised bodies is founded on their relations and differences, arising from their conformation; and these furnish the characters which mark genera and species. In the mineral kingdom, the composition diversifies the species; whence Werner infers, that minerals should be classed from a consideration of their component parts, which is the province of the chemist; but, when the whole system has been arranged, the particular description of fossils must depend on their obvious properties, as in zoology and botany.

M. Werner divides the characters of minerals into four kinds—the obvious, the chemical, the philosophical, and the empirical. He examines the utility of each of these for the purposes of discrimination, and gives a decided preference to the first kind, as uniting every advantage that can be expected from such characters. These advantages are, that the obvious property is found in all species of minerals, and in every specimen; that this property discriminates fossils by essential differences; that it can be distinguished and determined with accuracy; and that it may be easily described without requiring a chemical process. Mineralogists have doubted whether this method can discriminate fossils with certainty; and, on this account, M. Werner engages in the defence of his position. As the external characters depend on the aggregation of the molecules, and this on their reciprocal attractions, it follows, (he says) that, when the composition changes, the difference of attraction varies the aggregation, and of course the external appearances. Thus the calcareous spar passing on to a carbonate of iron, becomes of a grey colour and more heavy. The difference, therefore, which an experienced eye perceives between minerals, is connected with a difference of their principles; and consequently the external characters distinguish, essentially and certainly, one fossil from another.

After an historical inquiry into the conduct of different systematic naturalists, who have attempted various modes of discrimination without success, he mentions the necessary conditions for an exact distinction. A naturalist must have a



just notion of the characters in general, must know their number, give to each a suitable and fixed denomination, attach a distinct idea to his terms, and point out the mutual relations of his characters, or, in other words, divide them into genera and species.

There are seven generic characters, namely, colour, cohesion, touch, cold, weight, smell, taste; and all are particularly examined. Colour is, in the opinion of our author, one of the most certain characters. His principal instances are metallic substances, of which each has a characteristic colour. This character, however, is variable in some of the stones; but it is certainly distinguishable in many, particularly in flints, several of the talcs, &c. For the mineralogist's purpose, eight colours are to be noticed—white, grey, black, blue, green, yellow, red, and brown. These are the species which, when combined, form every different shade. In the series of colours, and their varieties, the snow-white, and the blackish brown, which is the step from black to brown, form the two extremes; and the intermediate terms are placed so as to mark the passage of one colour into another. The last variety of yellow is the orange-yellow; the first variety of red, which follows, is the aurora: this is succeeded by the other varieties, till we come to the carmine, the true red; after this the colour sinks to a brownish red, and the next series begins with a reddish brown. Sixty-one colours have been distinguished in minerals; and, to multiply the characters which these different hues furnish, M. Werner points out four degrees of intensity, by which each hue can be divided into so many secondary varieties. Thus, with the additions of obscure, deep, clear, and pale, we have, according to him, two hundred and eight shades of colours, which we may employ in the description of minerals.

The second character, drawn from cohesion, is also very copious. According to this view, fossils are divided into solid and fluid. The character of strict solidity is ascertained by the sight, the touch, and the sound. The sight furnishes the figure, the surface, and the splendour. The figure is common, particular, or regular, that is, crystallised. The other members of the division are equally divaricated. As we cannot follow M. Werner in every part, we shall only notice what he says with respect to crystallisation.

Crystals, considered with regard to their termination, present either the primitive form, without any addition, or this form altered by additional planes. The primitive form is that which is composed at most of two faces, the one lateral, the other terminal. The changes in this form may take place in three different modes; by cutting off, when there are simple facettes in lieu of solid angles or edges; by division, when the facettes are double; and by pointing, when the extremity termi-

nates in additional facettes. To ascertain the primary form, the author advises, that the attention be fixed on the faces, near the centre of the crystal, to examine the form which will result from their prolongation. This advice, however, cannot be strictly just; for the primitive form of one substance may pass into another, equally primitive, as the galena may, from a cubic crystal, pass into an octaedron. He seems also to consider all the angles and the faces as geometrically exact, which, the abbé Hauy has shown, can never be the case. Various inconsistencies will also be found in the rule for ascertaining the primitive form by prolonging the faces. These considerations led us to examine the original; and we discovered a little error in the translation. The term translated *primitive form* is *grund-gestalt*, the *fundamental form*; but the French crystallographers mean by their term the most perfect form in which the same species of fossil can crystallise. This would not serve the purpose of the German mineralogist, who is teaching us to know a crystal, as it is presented to us by nature, and who, by fundamental form, means only to refer us to some known geometrical solid, which it in general resembles, but not with geometrical accuracy.

The five last characters are not susceptible of such expansion as the two first. From the touch, minerals are distinguished into the greasy, and into those which are not so.

Cold consists in a more or less decisive feel of coldness excited in the organs of touch, which the author presumes to be in the ratio of the hardness and specific gravity. The diamond, for instance, is the coldest of all minerals; but many precautions are requisite to make these trials in an unexceptionable manner.

The specific gravity, in M. Werner's opinion, is the best criterion of the composition of minerals; but the frequent mixture of these bodies with each other, their situation in different matrices, and their being surrounded by different fossils, render the observation of this character very difficult, and almost impossible. Even to those minerals which we obtain most distinct and pure, our author allows, that the hydrostatic balance can seldom be properly applied. The weight, therefore, by poising the mineral in the hand, joined with its apparent bulk, must be the criterion. We may add, however, that Mr. Nicholson's instrument, formed on the principle of the hygrometer, might be of great use in this inquiry.

The sixth character, from the smell only, points out those minerals which have no odor, in contradistinction to those which have an urinous, bituminous, or sulphureous smell. The last distinction, from the taste, must be employed with caution, as so many minerals are poisonous.

M. Werner, to assist the student, adds to the indication of



each character the mention of many minerals as instances of it. He has also given tables in which the same characters are so disposed, that, with a single glance, the whole series may be seen, and their mutual relations understood. The work terminates with general rules for the description of a mineral. The first rule consists in the union and determination of all the external characters that can be distinguished in it. The second directs the disposition of these characters, which must be in a systematic order, and that in which they naturally present themselves. Thirdly, each character must be described by a fixed and appropriate denomination; and thus the description will be well arranged, clear, and complete.

The author's object, therefore, is to teach the art of obtaining fixed principles, and of expressing them properly in words, in order to distinguish the impressions made by fossils on our different organs. The design is useful, if it can be rendered perfect; and an useful degree of perfection seems not far distant. How can a chemist describe the object on which his experiments are made, to ascertain the similarity of the body on which others may repeat them, if this art is not cultivated and improved? And if it is contended that external signs are not sufficient to distinguish minerals, it may be answered, that Werner does not trust wholly to them.

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*Dissertation sur l'Irritabilité des Animaux et des Plantes, par J. Peschier, de Geneve, Docteur en Médecine.*

*An Inquiry into the Irritability of Animals and Plants, by Dr. Peschier, of Geneva.*

THIS is an interesting dissertation; but it will only be necessary to give the result of numerous experiments, which form its principal bulk.

"We know," says our author, "that plants have almost the power of loco-motion, and that the movements of many plants are very extraordinary. The causes of their irritability are usually reduced to six: external stimulants, oxygene, warmth, the sexual stimulus, light, and volition." Some observations on the sympathy of plants are subjoined. The doctor, through the whole of the treatise, uses the term irritability, though he begins with expressing his doubts, whether the irritability of vegetables and animals be the same.

There are many vegetables, he observes, which move at certain hours only; and we have some of these in our own climate, whose motions we can excite or impede. The *berberis vulgaris* moves its stamina towards the pistil at the time of maturation; and, in a few hours, they regain their

natural situation. These motions may be often repeated, if we stimulate the base of the stamina with a needle. The leaves of the *mimosa pudica*, in the evening, approach and unite, so as to form in appearance a single leaf; and this motion continues till the seeds are ripe. The plant contracts in the same way on touching. The petals of the *silene noctiflora* roll up after sun-set, and, in the morning, again expand. This motion continues for five days: the seeds ripen, and the plant dies. There are many other very irritable plants; but we need not particularise them.

The first section relates to the effects of chemical stimuli and odoriferous substances on plants styled sensible. The nitric acid produced the contraction of the stamina of the berberry, and the leaves of the *mimosa*. The former returned to their recent state, but the contraction of the latter continued. In plants not sensible, no motion was excited. Volatile alkali produced the contraction of the stamina of the berberry; but no relaxation followed: the branch was apparently killed. The leaves of the sensitive plant did not contract till after a period of thirty-five minutes, and did not again expand. In some instances, the branch is said to have survived; but we are not informed whether the leaves resumed their prior state. The fumes of camphor destroyed the irritability of the stamina and leaves of the two plants; but the vapour of musk did not injure either. Water, if mechanical stimulus be avoided, has no effect on the irritability of these vegetables.

The German philosophers, particularly Girtanner, suppose that plants, during the night, absorb oxygen, which, on its separation in the morning, produces all the motions of the plant, thus becoming the source of its irritability. In reality, oxygen is the excrementitious fluid of the greater number of plants; and, in the vegetable as in the animal kingdom, the free discharge of these fluids is most consistent with health and vigour. When it is retained, disease, in the former, does not always follow, since it often combines with other component parts, and is found in a new form. It very often is retained in the form of an acid; but acid plants are usually insensible, and sensible plants have always an agreeable odour, scarcely ever acid: many of them have a gland at the origin of their branches. The origin of the style of the berberis is surrounded with eight glands, which are melliferous nectaries. In the *ruta graveolens*, there is an elegant circle of red points round the germ. The *parnassia palustris* has five nectaries. The *silene noctiflora* exudes a slimy fluid, of which insects are extremely fond.

The effects of heat were afterwards tried. A red hot needle did not effect the stamina of the berberry; and it only



produced an unequal irregular motion in the leaves of the mimosa. Cooling snow did not injure in any degree the sensibility of the plant.

The influence of the sexual stimulus was next examined. When the antheræ of the berberis were (and also when the pistil was) cut off, the stamina retained their irritability. The removal of the nectaries and petals did not injure it. Light did not affect the motions of the silene noctiflora. When it was plunged in water, however, the motions were irregular. The irritability of the mimosa is indeed lessened by the want of light. If its footstalk be immersed in water, the leaves will continue in their contracted state, though they receive the light: if they swim in water, the usual motions will continue unimpaired. Dr. Darwin's idea of the perceptivity of plants is brought to the test of experiment. For this purpose, our author particularly observed the flowers of the epilobium angustifolium, where the stamina, the antheræ, and the pistil, have regular and successive motions, during the impregnation of the germ; but these did not affect the series of motions in the other parts: there could consequently be no perception with a view to a final cause.

The experiments on the sympathy of plants are not well directed. In the sensitive plant the footstalk of the digitation, and the genuform articulation of the general footstalk, seem the irritable parts; but nothing conclusive follows respecting sympathy. The seat of the irritability of the stamina of the berberis is at their base. The motions of the parnassia palustris, ruta graveolens, cistus helianthemus, and œnothera biennis, seemingly arise from the growth of the leaves; those of the kalmia glauca probably depend on mechanical causes. There is no evidence of the supposed sensation, perception, and volition. The manner of living and the motions of vegetables show only an organised being, which is nourished, grows and decays. We shall transcribe some of the observations of Dr. Rutherford of Geneva, quoted in this volume, relative to the analogy of animals and vegetables.

‘ We have carried (he remarks) this analogy too far. If, by irritability, we understand the power of being affected by external bodies, it is common to every organised being: if we apply it to true volition, which has at its command a muscular power, the analogy subsists no longer. The fibres of vegetables may lengthen and shorten, but they are closely united, and not by a flexible cellular texture like the fibres of animals. The muscles are therefore flexible, and the vegetable fibre stiff. If we contract a plant at the articulation, it bends, and an intermediate space remains. Plants differ from animals, by their organs of respiration, and the gasses they

exhale. Their nature, their chemical principles, and their combinations, are very different. Should not, therefore, their œconomy differ as much as their functions?

‘ From every phenomenon we may conclude, that the motions observed in some plants are owing, 1st, to an augmentation of the fibre; 2dly, to a more considerable increase of some parts than of others; 3dly, to the sudden or slow changes, the condensation or rarefaction of their contained fluids’ — to which may be added the emission or absorption of different gasses.

We shall conclude this article with the distinctions suggested by M. Peschier. ‘ Animals avoid hurtful aliments; which plants do not. Animals lose only some unnecessary part, as the epidermis; a vegetable dies down to the root. An animal preserves some irritability after death; a vegetable none. In an animal, though not in a vegetable, the same part has always the same irritability. The parts of animals become yellow by the application of the nitric acid, those of vegetables white. Alkalis and acids have more action on vegetables than on animals. The seeds of animals do not preserve their fertility like those of vegetables. If the branches of a tree are cut, the others become more vigorous: if a part even of a polypus is cut off, the animal suffers in its health and activity.

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*Mémoire sur quelques Espèces de Chauve-Souris, qui executent dans l’Air, en volant, après avoir été aveuglées, tous les Mouvements qu’on les voit faire, quand elles ont leurs Yeux, & qui ne sauroient être executés par les autres Oiseaux privés de Vue; par l’Abbé Spallanzani.*

*A Memoir, by the Abbé Spallanzani, respecting some Species of Bats, which, after the Loss of Sight, fly about with an Ease and Freedom that no other Birds, deprived of Sight, are known to retain.*

OF this memoir an abstract only has been published by M. Sennebier.

The abbé Spallanzani was examining the functions of those birds which appear only in the twilight, and, among the rest, of bats. He was surprised to find that they would fly in the darkest chamber with precision, and not even touch the walls. He found them equally exact in their motions when the eye was most closely covered; and at last he cruelly destroyed the eye, covering the socket with leather. In this state the bat flies with the same ease as before. It avoids the walls, and cautiously suspends its flight in seeking where to



perch. It even flies out at the door, without touching the architraves. The abbé repeated his experiments on several species of bats, besides the common kind, with the same success; and similar experiments were made by Vassalli at Turin, by Rossi at Pisa, Spadon at Bologna, and Jurin at Geneva. We shall add Spallanzani's arguments for supposing, that, in these instances, no other sense can supply the place of sight. They are extracted from a letter to Vassalli, printed at Turin.

'Touch cannot, in this case, supply the place of sight, because an animal covered with hair cannot be supposed to have that sense very delicate. In flying through the middle of a sewer which turned at right angles, the bats regularly bent their flight at the curvature, though two feet distant from the walls. They discovered holes for their retreat; found a resting-place on a cornice; avoided the branches of trees suspended in a room; flew through threads hung perpendicularly from the ceiling, without touching, though they were scarcely at a greater distance than their extended wings; and, when the threads were brought nearer, contracted their wings to pass through them. They equally avoided every obstacle, though the whole head was covered with a varnish made of sandarach dissolved in spirit of wine.

'The ear could not have discovered a cornice or the threads: this sense, therefore, does not compensate the want of the power of seeing. Besides, bats fly equally well when the ear is most carefully covered. The smell might possibly assist them; for, when the nose was stopped, they breathed with difficulty, and soon fell. While they did fly, however, they seemed to avoid obstacles very well; and the smell could scarcely have assisted them in discovering the suspended threads. The taste must have been, in every respect, unequal to the task of supplying the place of sight.'

We cannot conclude this subject without some remarks. These experiments were equally cruel and unnecessary. As the bat is an animal which flies abroad at night, and in the twilight, and as its eyes are small and dark, without the construction which is required to take advantage of the slightest glimmer, it must have been obvious that nature had provided other resources. The mouth, for instance, is extremely wide, and the taste delicate. Though these animals are covered with hair, there are numerous nerves open to the impression of the surrounding air; and the impression of this air, in different ways, probably gives them information of obstacles, holes, &c. Thus we see blind men aware of an obstacle in the street before they reach it. We have seen them, on coming into a room, aware of its size, avoid a chair

in the middle, &c. On inquiry into the source of their feelings, they have referred it to an obscure sensation of resistance, which rendered them cautious. Animals intended by nature for darkness, must of course have these feelings much more delicate; and the impression is probably made on the organs of respiration. A Frenchman lately pretended to foretell the arrival of ships before they were in sight; and his pretensions were supported by strong evidence. He explained this faculty by intimating that he observed a kind of cloudiness resulting the meeting of the atmospheres from the ship and the land; and this explanation is supported by the great probability that each body has a peculiar atmosphere.

Returning to the immediate subject, we observe, that in the room the air did not afford an uniform resistance, but that something probably projected; and this conclusion, after the experience of a whole life, could not have been different. In the same way, while the bat flew through the sewer, it did not find the resistance equal, and consequently flew to the side where it was least; nor is it surprising that a diminution of resistance was felt in such small spaces as blind holes, since there are few such spaces in which the heat is not greater or less. Should this not be the case, it must be remembered, that the bat, flying against the air, must be sensible of a partial as well as a general resistance; and experience must have taught the animal, that, while the latter would probably open a free passage, the former must afford a resting-place.

Having lately had occasion to bear ample testimony to the industry and abilities of the abbé Spallanzani, we could not resist our eagerness for reprehending cruelty, which certainly was not necessary, since, in every view, it has added little to our general knowledge, and in none can benefit the human race—the only excuse for inflicting pain on inferior animals.

Since we wrote the above, the *Journal de Physique*, in which M. Jurin's experiments occur, has reached us. That naturalist first notices some peculiarities of the torpid state of bats; the manner in which they fix themselves to the walls and the vaults of caverns; as well as the food apparently provided for them, when they first emerge from the torpid state; viz. numerous moths and crane flies, which abound in the same spots. The temperature of the vaults was above the mean heat of the earth, rising occasionally to  $57^{\circ}$ , though sometimes it was as low as  $50^{\circ}$  of Fahrenheit. In a temperature from  $36^{\circ}$  to  $39^{\circ}$  they soon died, or became so torpid as to be with difficulty roused.

M. Jurin proceeds to mention his experiments. When fixing on its place of rest, a blind bat continued its usual custom of stretching out the neck. When one was blind and



Another saw, the former followed the latter with the most minute accuracy, and seemed, in passing through small openings, to clear them with even greater dexterity than the other. When the ears were bound up, a bat flew badly. Every bandage about the head, indeed, is not only extremely disagreeable to a bat, but seems to change the centre of gravity, so as to disconcert the animal's motions. When the ears were otherwise closed, it flew very well: when the ears and eyes were closed, it flew badly; but both operations must have considerably affected the animal.

To determine the source of this sagacity, our author examined those animals anatomically, and found a very large proportion of nerves, expanded on the upper jaw, the muzzle, and the organs of hearing.

These and other observations which he then made, appeared to him, in a great degree, to account for the extraordinary intelligence of the animals in question.

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*Anéantissement de la Pologne, décrit historiquement, statistiquement, et géographiquement, par M. Sirisa; avec Estampes & une Carte Géographique. Varsovie, 1797.*

*Historical, Statistic, and Geographical Particulars, relative to (the now annihilated Kingdom of) Poland; with a Map, and other Prints.*

THOUGH Poland, once a powerful and always a respectable kingdom, no longer exists as an independent state, there is some pleasure, mingled indeed with melancholy, in contemplating its former glory, and in carrying our views through the stages of its weakness to its downfall. We wish that the last efforts of the people had been more strenuous, and that this ancient, warlike nation, which was alone capable of withstanding the united power of Germany, had roused itself to greater exertions than the hasty ill-concerted resistance made under the brave and generous Kosciuszko. But Poland was at that time weakened by the dismemberment of some of its richest provinces; mutual jealousy rendered the inhabitants suspicious; and the members of the equestrian order had lost that spirit and fire which they derived from their progenitors, the Sarmatians.

The map prefixed to this work marks the separations of 1773 and 1793, as well as the final partition. The vignette is fanciful and characteristic. It represents a large tree despoiled, in a great measure, of its branches; they are seen

falling at its feet, scattered in confusion; the trunk, wounded on the right and left, is nearly falling; some branches, rising in the air, form with the trunk the letter P. *Poland.* The Prussian eagle is perched on the left; the Russian and Austrian emblems are on the right; and on the summit is seen the white eagle of Poland, which drops a crown, languishes, and expires.

We shall select a sketch of the character of the late king of Poland. Stanislaus Augustus was possessed of many excellent qualities, and deserved well of his country. The severity of his fate must draw tears from every feeling heart. During his reign, he was incessantly anxious for the welfare of Poland: he corrected a great variety of abuses, and introduced some useful reforms in the administration of justice. He was well acquainted with the defects of the political constitution; and he exerted all his judgment and activity to weaken or destroy the pernicious influence of other powers, too frequently felt. No one was prevented from approaching him: generous and benevolent, he did all the good in his power, and was truly a good king, but was too little known.

We wish that we could have added foresight and decision to this character. Could Stanislaus have united the turbulent spirit of the nobles, and directed, against the enemies of his country, the fire which was exhausted in petty disputes, Poland might have still existed as a distinct realm.

Though Poland contains a great number of protestants, the catholic is the prevailing religion. The estates of the clergy comprehended nearly two-thirds of the country; and, in general, their claims absorbed a fifth part of the revenue of the lands, without including many emoluments attached to their functions.

The philosophers of Poland have lately enriched the world with many more treatises than in any former equal period. The taste for science has even spread among the nobles. In former times, the Latin tongue, eloquence, and history, attracted the chief attention of the Poles; but jurisprudence, and the constitution of their own country, sometimes shared in their studies. Lately they have cultivated, with some success, philosophy, mathematics, medicine, and the belles lettres. The history of the country owes much of its accuracy to the public library of Warsaw (founded by the liberality of the family of Zaluski), which contains 100,000 volumes. Posen possesses a school of exercise; and there is another at Gnesen. Warsaw boasts of an academy of sciences, one of philosophy, and a school of nobles.

Dantzic, so famous for its commerce in corn and other productions, is excellently situated; its environs are delight-



ful, and afford many charming prospects. A beautiful walk goes around it, which can be traversed in an hour. The city is divided by two rivers; but its population has gradually sunk from 80,000 to 40,000 persons; a difference attributed to a considerable excess of the deaths above the births: the difference from 1701 to 1793 exceeded 33,000. It must, however, be obvious, that this cause alone did not produce so great a defalcation; and the suspended sword of Prussia, the apprehensions of a change of government, and of its consequences, must have greatly contributed to lessen the number of the inhabitants, who, under such circumstances, sought a more secure settlement.

The situation of Warsaw is in a sandy plain, where it occupies a large space. The Vistula waters and adorns its walls. The stranger is surprised at the number of superb palaces which seem almost contiguous. The internal decorations of these structures, the choice of the furniture, the collection of pictures and engravings, the disposition of the gardens, &c. are not inferior to the beauty of the buildings, and equally show the opulence and good taste of the proprietors. A strange contrast sometimes occurs; and, near a splendid palace, are wooden barracks in the antient taste; but these are gradually decaying, and it is no longer allowed to rebuild them of wood. In Warsaw are 192 streets, many of them large and handsome, where the stranger may walk by day or night with equal safety. Even in April 1795, the population had sunk to 66,572 souls, of which number at least one-third consisted of foreigners. The towns above-mentioned belong to that part of Poland which was seized by the court of Berlin in 1793 and 1795, and which added more than two millions to the number of the Prussian subjects. The fixed imposts of this territory amounted to 7,421,472 Polish florins *per annum*.

Those parts which have fallen to the lot of Russia are equally important. The woods of Lithuania extend far in every direction; but, in the Ukraine, the forests are greatly decayed, in consequence of the wretched policy of the Polish government. This country abounds with mines of iron; the number of inhabitants exceeded four millions and a half, and the subsidies nearly amounted to eight millions and a half of florins.

Vilna affords a catholic university, under the name of *Schola Princeps*, which it received when it was established as a seminary after the expulsion of the Jesuits. There is another catholic university at Olyka; and the Jews have one at Brzesc, to which pupils resort from distant countries. At Vilna there is a *Studium Theologiæ dogmaticæ et moralis*, for

the use of persons of the Greek religion; a school of navigation, and a college of philosophy and anatomy, are also subsisting in that town. At Schwierzno is a theological institution; and at Grodno is a school of medicine, with a considerable botanic garden. Many other academical bodies are established in the late dominions of the Polish crown; and Catharine II. ordered the establishment of a seminary at Kaminiec, for the study of theology according to the dogmas of the Greek church, and for different arts and sciences. She allotted fifteen millions of florins for this institution; and the smallest salary for a professor was 1000 rubles.

At Vilna there were five printing-houses; at Grodno, Slonim, Berdiczow, and Poczajow, one. Poland had few manufactures; and the greater part of these devolved to Russia, particularly the lace manufacture, and that of silks and velvets introduced by Frenchmen.

In Podolefia, the marshes resemble lakes. If the river Muchawiek, which falls into the Bug, were joined by a canal to the Pina, which flows into the Pripetz, vessels might pass from the Vistula to the Dnieper, and, consequently, from the Baltic to the Black Sea. In early ages this passage was perhaps navigable, or the portage was short; for the commerce of the Black Sea, in the most flourishing ages of Greece, included a variety of commodities from the Baltic; and this was probably the course of the celebrated Argonautic expedition: but this subject we expect to see very fully illustrated. Till the more important communication shall be opened, count Ogynski has joined these two seas by cutting a canal, which communicates from the Sczara that falls into the Niemen, to the Pripetz which falls into the Dnieper; a canal which, besides its more obvious utility, contributes to drain the vast marshes of this district.

The last territory acquired by the emperor contains about a million of inhabitants, and the revenues exceed three millions and a half of florins. The university of Cracow was always the most considerable in Poland. The population of the city does not exceed 13,000 persons. Poonykow has a manufacture of excellent musquets, which are furnished at a cheap rate.

For some reason, perhaps a political one, that part of Poland which has fallen to the emperor is very imperfectly described. As the country is little known to the English, we could have wished for more information. We suspect a little policy in the change even of the epithet; for *Northern Galicia* is styled *Western*, and nothing is said of what has been called *Southern Galicia*.



*Gefänge Davids und seiner Zeitgenossen, nach Zeitfolge geordnet, und neu bearbeitet, von J. C. C. Nachtigal. Erster Band. 8vo. Leipzig.*

*Psalms or Songs of David and his Contemporaries, arranged in chronological Order, and placed in a new Light, by J. C. C. Nachtigal. Vol. I.*

**CRITICISM**, which hath been applied with such advantage in Germany to the classics, is not restricted to them; for the scriptures seem equally to have attracted the notice of the literati of that country. Since the lectures of Lowth on the poetry of the Hebrews, the poetical books of that nation have been considered with attention. Herder, in his masterly but unfinished performance on the spirit of the Hebrew Poetry,\* has more than rivaled his predecessor; and some of his countrymen have followed him with success.

The psalms, regarded as an Hebrew anthology, have received great illustration from the pens of Cramer, Stark, Vogel, and Haffé†; but the volume before us presents them in an original and very interesting view, M. Nachtigal having exhibited those which he hath selected under the united character of a drama, denominated *Zion*.

This drama is introduced by an ingenious disquisition, in which, after some pertinent observations on the importance of national songs, as serving to discriminate the characters of nations and ascertain their progressive cultivation and refinement, the writer proceeds to instance several, so as to make it appear that the Israelites were in possession of such songs from their departure out of Egypt to the time of king David. These were not merely of a private or personal nature, but were publicly performed with choral solemnity, all the people frequently joining in them; of which practice one example occurs in the triumphal song of Barak and Deborah, and another still more prominent in the poetical celebrity at the consecration of *Zion*. After the capture of Jerusalem and the reduction of the several Canaanitish tribes, particularly the Jebusites, David resolved to make Mount *Zion*, which he called by his own name, the capital of Canaan, and the centre of union for the Israelitish people. To accomplish this object, it was determined that the public festi-

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\* Of this work two volumes only have appeared. The third, which is to finish the plan, we have long expected in vain. The characteristical difference between Lowth and Herder is this; Herder explores, in the Hebrew poetry itself, its radical and constituent principles; whilst Lowth, like a cautious voyager, takes his bearings and courses from classical headlands.

† The *Idiogonik Davids* of this writer is a work of extraordinary merit, and will amply repay re-iterated perusal.

vals of the nation should be annually celebrated on that spot. Hence Zion became the sanctuary of Israel; here was placed the ark of the covenant, the covering of which was ornamented with the hieroglyphic symbol of the divine presence; and the solemnity of transferring hither this sacred deposit, and of taking possession of the place in the name of Jehovah, formed a signal epoch to the Israelites themselves, and the neighbouring nations.

In Zion, David raised a receptacle for the ark, instituted a festival for the assembled nation, and appointed for the celebration of this solemnity the chief priests and Levites, who officially took part in the songs. Of the singers at large the chief was Chenaniah, under whom they were divided into three companies, respectively led by Asaph, Zechariah, and Mattathiah, who, we may suppose, accompanied the voices with their instruments, both in the different cadences or changes of time, and at the prelude and close of every chorus.

The people, as in the performance of dramatic songs, participated in this celebration; and some, led by a small kind of cymbal, which the women in particular struck, at stated intervals sang in chorus the well-known expressions of assent or acclamation—"Amen" (*so it is, or so be it*); "hallelujah!" (praised be Jehovah!) "Jehovah is gracious, his mercy endureth for ever"—"Jehovah is king," &c.

Thus David conducted, in festal procession, the priests, Levites, chiefs of tribes, and the people, to the house of Obed-edom, where the ark had for some time remained; and thence he escorted it to the mount on which Zion stood, amidst the sounds of thousands of instruments, and choruses composed for the purpose, which at stated times and places were interrupted by sacrificial oblations, the troop advancing with measured steps, or rather in sacred dance:—

"*Ibant æquati numero, regemque caneant.*"

Passing through the gate of Zion, the whole company proceeded in full song to the precinct of the tabernacle. Here the people paused, while the priests attended the ark of the covenant to the place prepared for its reception. Many songs having been sung, and the joyful assembly solemnly blessed by the king, all returned to their respective homes.

The songs of the chief composers, David, Asaph, and probably Nathan, Gad, and Heman, are partially or fully cited in 1 Chron. 16.—The 96th, 105th, and 106th psalms, are in the number; and so applicable to the occasion are the 24th, 47th and 48th, that most commentators of modern date have referred them to it.

The choruses of the people may, in the majority of instances, be ascertained from the connexion, or from the earliest versions. They are indicated by the general style of



describing the solemnity of the day, by detached expressions of rejoicing, or by the beginnings or endings of psalms with the appropriate hallelujah.

Such is the simple historical detail of this first species of dramatic poetry, which is by many centuries prior to the effusions of Homer.

In this representation, however, much needs to be supplied; and, as few traces remain in the documents of history to guide an inquirer, many doubts with respect to the alleged hypothesis may arise. Aware of this, Mr. Nachtigal proceeds to state the results which, after long research, have occurred to him upon the subject.

Having justly affirmed that the songs of the Israelites, partly styled the Psalms of David, and partly interspersed in their historical books, are unquestionably amongst the choicest flowers of poetic production, this ingenious critic intimates, that they are not arranged in order of time, or even ranked by affinity of subject. This indeed is obvious; for the songs of David are placed after others written during the captivity, whilst some of Asaph are preceded by those of Hezekiah and Jeremiah. The title of *psalm* might be thought to afford some scope for conjecture; but, while no mention occurs of time or of author, a little inquiry will shew the titles to have been of later date, many being posterior to the Alexandrine version, and some differing from the present in the Syriac translation (see psalms 54, &c.); whilst compositions much more recent, appear under the names of David and Asaph. See psalms 14, 53, 69, 74, 79, 124, &c.

Songs, in themselves distinct, have not been kept so; and others entire have been broken. Instances of the former remark occur in the 18th, 19th, 39th, 40th, 51st, 57th, and other psalms; and of the latter, in the 9th and 10th, which are three joined together, as are the 42d and 43d. Besides, many of these songs are but *membra disjecta*. Hence, rightly to understand these various compositions, it will be requisite to arrange them according to their contents, separate what will not correspond, and unite what would obviously make out the sense.

A further expedient for restoring particular songs is the consideration of their having been adapted to music, and been actually sung in choral divisions. In this class may be reckoned those inscribed "*Lamnazeach*," which implies a direction to the principal singer that the songs were to be sung in chorus. At present, however, this index is not perfectly exact; and, unquestionably, it is often omitted.

The musical signs of every rest, which the modern divisions into verse by no means represent, are all nominally lost, except in the instance of *Selah*, which either denoted a general

pause, or an alternation of chorus, particularly when the people struck in, or accompanied the music with 'Amen! —hallelujah!—Jehovah is gracious,' &c. In many cases this sign appears to indicate a change of mode and time, as may be seen in the 32d psalm; and, without doubt, it served various uses in the more simple music of antiquity, for which the modern hath multiplied substitutes.

The office of *Menazeach* corresponded to that of chief composer, or director of the band; whence the manner of singing the different parts, interchange of instruments, divisions of the choruses and particular accompaniments, were all regulated by him. The importance of this office may be conceived from the many performers who joined in chorus, amounting from 10,000 to 50,000 Israelites.

The Israelites had unquestionably particular styles of singing, in which their modes and times were adapted to the subject, as in the martial song, love-strain, and elegy; whence, probably, the inscriptions "al muthlaben—al ajelet hashachar—al shoshanim—al jonat elem rehokim—al taschet—al shushan edut—el nechilot—binginat—al githit—al machalat—al sheminit," &c.—point out the musical instruments appropriate to each.

A comparison, instituted by our author between the ancient Hebrew music in its most simple state and that of the Greeks, especially the Athenians, tends materially to illustrate both; but this, with other amplifications, particularly those which relate to the dramatic part of the subject, we with regret must forego. Suffice it to observe, on this whole disquisition, that it merits, from its simplicity as well as from its acuteness, a high degree of commendation.

The divisions of the *drama*, with the order of songs under each, are the following:

I. *Songs at the foot of the mount upon which Zion stood.*

1. Psalm 98.—2. Psalm 96.

II. *Songs sung in ascending the mountain.*

1. Psalm 68.—2. Exodus 15, 1-18.—3. Psalm 66.—4. Psalm 107.—5. Psalm 47.

III. *On the summit of the mountain.*

Psalm 133.

IV. *Before the gate of Zion.*

Psalm 24.

V. *On entering into Zion.*

Psalm 100.

VI. *On entering the outer court of the tabernacle of the congregation.*

Psalm 117. Psalm 118, 1-4, 19-29.



VII. *On resting the ark of the covenant.*

VIII. *After the ark of the covenant had been deposited in its place.*

Psalms 132, 8, 9, 13-18.

1. Psalm 99.—2. Psalms 105 and 106.—3. Psalm 114.—  
4. Psalm 2.—5. Psalm 75.—6. Psalm 76.—7. Psalm 97.—  
8. Psalms 9 and 10.—9. 1 Samuel, ii. 1-10 and Psalm  
113.—10. Psalm 46.—11. Psalm 29.—12. Psalm 93.—  
13. Psalm 87.—14. Psalm 125.—15. Psalms 135 and 136.  
—17. Psalm 128.—18. 1. Chron. xvii. 36.

As a specimen of the manner of the choral divisions, the 98th Psalm, supposed to be the first sung at the foot of the mountain, is annexed.

*First Chorus.*

1. Sing to Jehovah a new song!  
Wonderful are his deeds.  
His uplifted right-hand hath obtained for him the  
victory\*.

*Second Chorus.*

2. Jehovah hath made his victory known.  
He hath manifested himself as sovereign  
To the people of other lands.†

*Third Chorus.*

3. He remembereth the good he promised to Israel.  
The remotest lands have witnessed  
The victory of our God!

*Full Chorus.*

Praise Jehovah!

*The People.*

Praised be Jehovah!

*First Chorus.*

4. Shout joyfully to Jehovah, all inhabitants of the land!  
Be glad, sing and rejoice.

*Second Chorus.*

5. Sing to Jehovah with the harp, the viol, the trumpet,  
the loud-toned horn!

*Third Chorus.*

6. Shout joyfully, shout joyfully to Jehovah!  
He is the king!

*Full Chorus.*

Jehovah is king!

*The People.*

Jehovah is king!

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\* The wars and victories of the Israelites were usually represented by the Hebrew poets as the wars and victories of Jehovah, and Jehovah as enthroned upon Zion, the sovereign of all the land of Canaan.

† Phœnicia, Egypt, Idumæa, &c.

*First Chorus.*

7. Let the sea again rejoice, and the fullness thereof ;  
The land, with those that dwell therein.

*Second Chorus.*

8. Let the floods clap their hands ;  
The surrounding mountains resound to Jehovah ! \*

*Third Chorus.*

9. He cometh, he cometh, the king of the land ! †  
The righteous Lord ruleth the world, ‡  
The rightful Lord of the people !

*Full Chorus.*

He cometh, he cometh, the king of the land !

*The People.*

He cometh, he cometh, the king of the land !

It is observable that Mr. Henley, in a note inserted by Dr. Gregory at the end of the first volume, if we mistake not, of his translation of Lowth's prælections, proposed a similar method of dividing the psalms.

*Origin, Progress, and present State of the Russian Hunting-Music, by J. C. Elinrich, with Engravings (German). Petersburg.*

THIS curious work we have selected, since it affords a picture of rude splendor and magnificence, unknown in this country, as well as some improvements of an instrument, which, in our hands, is not capable of great variety. The author himself is an able musician, and has resided many years at Petersburg. The introduction explains the subject in the following manner.

‘ The hunting-music of the Russians, called also the music of the horns, is *unique* in its kind, and singular in its origin ; and it has been carried to such a degree of perfection, and is so enchanting, not only to connoisseurs, but also to those who are not exquisitely musical, that its history should have been long ago written, instead of our being contented with the present attempt, which aims only at establishing its existence.’

Though the author had cultivated the friendship of the inventor of this music for five years, he would not perhaps have undertaken its history, if he had not, after the death of his friend,

\* All participate in the joyful festival and triumphal procession of the day.

† On the ark of the covenant.

‡ Instead of the *terrestrial globe* or *world*, the original might have been rendered *the land*, to shew that the present system was not in contemplation.



been so fortunate as to obtain some manuscripts relative to this subject. He acknowledges that some difficulty would attend the introduction of this music into other countries; but he hopes, that the basses of this instrument may be employed in reinforcing church-music. 'I cannot,' he adds, 'fancy any thing more majestic and sublime, than the Heilig of Bach, executed in a large church, by a well-selected double choir, the basses being filled up with the music of the horns.'

The inventor of the Russian hunting-music was J. A. Marefch, who was born in Bohemia in 1719. He repaired to Petersburg in 1748, and entered into the service of the count de Bestuchef. When the empress Elizabeth dined, one day, with the minister, she was so much pleased with Marefch's performance on the horn, that she offered to take him into her own service. He accepted the offer, and was appointed musician of the chamber. In this station, he invented the present music; and the direction of it was assigned to him, under the title of Master of the Imperial Chapel. He died in 1794.

In its execution, a great number of horns are employed; some long and straight, others more or less short, and a little curved, but all of the same tone. The vignette of the book represents a band playing. Twenty musicians, at least, are required; but forty would not be sufficient, as there are ninety-one sounds in all, if some of the performers, having little to do, were not able conveniently to attend more than one horn at a time. Some of these instruments descend lower than the common horns; and the sounds are thus rendered more tremulous, and more forcibly affect distant auditors. This music has been brought to such perfection, that the quartettos and quintettos of Haydn, Mozart, and Pleyel, may be performed with it, and the concertos of Giornovich executed even to the shake, with admirable precision and celerity. What occasions particular astonishment is, the accurate execution of *rf*, *sf*, *mf*, *pf*, *cal*, &c. to which may be added the strong though pleasing rest, on the slow and dying notes, producing a very fine effect in the pathetic passages.

The best band, at present known, is that of the chamberlain Wadkowskoi. There was another equally superb under the direction of Charles Lau, of the Imperial Corps of Chasseurs; it belonged to count Rasumowskoi. He resigned it to prince Potemkin, who carried it with him in all his expeditions. This band was dispersed at his death, so that M. Lau could not collect above seven or eight individuals.

In 1763, this music was employed with brilliant success, at an extraordinary festival. During the last week of a Russian carnival, a hill, six toises in height, and forty in circumference, was seen to advance. It was so well covered with trees

and shrubs, that the sledge on which it was carried did not appear. In this wood were many deer, hares, foxes, and different kinds of game that had been killed; and the musicians, who were concealed by the foliage, so that their bonnets only were seen, struck up a concert, which seemed the effect of enchantment.

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*Commentationes editæ a Johanne Casparo Velthufen, Ecclesiæ Sacrisque Ducat. Brem. et Verd. Præfecto, Christiano Theoph. Kuinoel, Professore Lipsiensi, et Georgio Alexandro Ruperti, Gymnasii Stadenfis Rectore. Vols. I. II. III. 8vo. Lipsiæ.*

*Commentaries and Dissertations published at different Times, and now collected.*

THESE volumes consist of discourses *ex cathedra*, academical essays, &c. They have not been indiscriminately taken, but have been selected with the best judgment of the editors, who are well qualified for the task; and many have been corrected and improved. We may observe, that, in pieces of this kind, the authors are stimulated to exert their greatest efforts, but that the narrow limits to which they are confined prevent their powers from having full play.

The subjects of this compilation are as follow:

Vol. I. 1. F. V. Reinard explanatio loci Jes. xi. 2—5. 2. J. Velthufen Jes. Hymnus Jes. cap. xxvi. 3. C. F. Schnurrer Dis. ad Ps. lxxviii. 4. G. A. Ruperti Dis. ad Ps. xvi. 5. J. F. Ch. Loeffler Dis. Joannis epist. 1. Gnosticos imprimis impugnari negans; 6. Ejusd. Dis. quâ Marcionem Pauli epist. et Lucæ evangelium adulterasse dubitatur; 7. G. Storr commentatio loci, 1 Tim. iii. 16; 8. G. J. Planck Obs. in primam doctrinæ de naturis Christi historiam; 9. C. F. Stæudlin doctrinæ de futurâ corporum exanimatorum instauratione ante Christum historia; 10. C. T. Kuinoel explicatio ep. Pauli ad Titum; 11. J. G. Rosenmüller Dis. ad locum, Rom. i. 4. 12. J. F. Schmid AA. M. examen integritatis duorum priorum capitum Matthæi; 13. L. J. Griesbachii Dis. quâ Marci evangelium totum e Matth. et Lucæ commentariis decerptum esse monstratur; 14. J. G. Scharfenborg Dis. de Joh. Philopono Tritheismi defensore; 15. J. C. Doederlein explicatio loci, Rom. viii 18—27. 16. C. F. Hufnagel dissert. ad Ps. xxii.

Vol. II. 1. F. V. Reinhard Symbola ad interpretationem Psalmi lxviii. 2. Christoph. Frid. Loefneri Commentatio de domo orbâ ad Matth. xxiii. 38. et Luc. xiii. 35. 3. C. F. Schnurrer observationum ad Vaticinia Jeremiæ, Pars 1. 4. Joh. Casp. Velthufen sermonum Eliæ Busitæ Jobi cap. xxxii — xxxvii. interpretatio; 5. G. Al. Ruperti Inter-



pretatio Psalmi xvi. 6. Joh. Ge. Rosenmüller diss. de vocabuli *διαθηκη* in libris N. T. vario usu; 7. Lebr. Henr. Sam. Jehne, de resurrectione carnis interpretatio cap. xv. ep. i. ad Corinth. 8. Joh. Jac. Griesbach commentatio de imaginibus Judaicis, quibus auctor epistolæ ad Hebræos in describendâ Messiae provinciâ usus est; 9. Car. Fr. Stæudlin, theologiæ moralis Hebræorum ante Christum historia; 10. Gottl. Christ. Storr, Prolusio de consensu epistolarum Pauli ad Hebræos et Galatas; 11. Car. Christ. Flat. Diss. de notione vocis *βασιλεια των ουρανων*; 12. Christ. Theoph. Kuinoel, Explicatio ep. Pauli ad Titum; 13. Joh. Frid. Gaab animadversiones tum criticæ, tum philologicæ, ad loca quædam Veteris Testamenti.

Vol. III. 1. F. V. Reinhard, Diss. de Christo suam dum viveret resurrectione prædicente; 2. A. F. Ruckersfelder, de Cod. N. T. Vaticano epist. ad Theod. Lubbers; 3. Gul. Frid. Hufnagel, Diss. de Psalmis prophetias Messianas continentibus; 4. Frid. Sam. Winterberg Diss. de tabernaculis æternis ad Luc. xvi. 9. 5. Gottl. Christ. Storr, de fonte evangelior. Matth. et Lucæ; 6. Christ. Theoph. Kuinoel interpretatio grammatica loci Pauli apostoli ad Eph. v. 6—14. 7. Joh. Casp. Velthusen de legibus divinis non simpliciter arbitrariis pars prima, eaque philosophica; 8. Herrm. Andr. Pistorius, de legibus div. non a mero Dei arbitrio proficiscentibus; 9. Christ. Frid. Loefneri Obs. ad voces quasdam versionum Græcar. vet. interp. proverbior. Salomonis; 10. Joh. Casp. Velthusen, de legibus div. non simpliciter arbitrariis pars altera, eaque exegetica; 11. Christ. Frid. Schnurrer. Obs. ad vaticinia Jeremiæ; 12. Ge. Al. Ruperti, Explicatio Cap. i. et ii. Chabacuci.

Such are the subjects discussed in these volumes; and, of the dissertations that compose them, many would furnish interesting extracts; but we shall content ourselves with analysing the production of Schmid, and quoting a piece by Winterberg.

In defending the genuineness of the two first chapters of St. Matthew, Schmid forms three divisions. In the first, after observing, that the principles of just criticism will by no means authorise us to consider any book, whether sacred or profane, as spurious or interpolated, because it contains what we cannot explain, he proceeds to state the different views of the evangelists, as a sufficient ground to account for the omissions by one of what another relates, and afterwards examines the arguments drawn from Tatian and the Ebionites. Of Tatian he remarks, that, instead of the whole two chapters, his exclusion extends only to the genealogy, as being unfavourable

to his own notions; and that his other omissions are not confined to St. Matthew, but involve all those passages of the evangelists in which Jesus is styled the son of David. The Ebionites, as well as Tatian, held peculiar opinions, besides denying the divinity of Christ. The contents of these chapters being incongruous with the dogmas of this sect, they must either have renounced the one or the other.

In the next section, the dissertator maintains that these chapters exist in the best and most ancient copies and versions, and, with an exception of the instance of Tatian and the Ebionites, were admitted on all sides as part of the gospel. Cerinthus and Carpocrates cavil at the pedigree of Christ, as given by St. Matthew; and Celsus, the most acute enemy of Christianity, ridicules this part of the evangelist's narrative. The account of the magi and star hath been cited by various writers; and Ignatius, the disciple of St. John, expressly quotes the 23d verse of the 1st chapter, and adverts to the magi and the star. By Justin Martyr, besides his having cited Matth. i. 23. and ii. 6—18, the history of the birth of Jesus, of the magi, star, and flight into Egypt, is detailed almost in the evangelist's order; whilst Irenæus, besides mentioning the gospel of St. Matthew as beginning with Βίβλος γενεσεως Ιησου Χριστου υιου Δαβιδ, υιου Αβρααμ, hath quoted ch. i. 20. and ch. ii. 2—15. Other authorities are added from Tertullian, Theodoret, Julius Africanus, Cyprian, Chrysostom, and Augustin, as well as from Sedulius, Juvenius, and Prudentius.

The third section is occupied by a grammatical investigation, in which it is evinced that the phrase, *εν δε ταις ημεραις εκειναις*, could not have begun a narration, but is only proper in connecting subordinate occurrences with others immediately preceding. Besides, were it otherwise, nearly thirty years would be cut off from the history, as the *εν δε ταις ημεραις* must refer to the days of Herod Antipas.

The comments of Winterberg on Luke xvi. 9, are judicious.—The following is the result.

‘Ex his omnibus apparet, unicam loci nostri interpretationem hanc esse: facite vobis, donec felices fueritis, et divitiarum, et ab ancipiti temporum casuumque mutatione pendentium, copia instructi, facite igitur vobis et comparate, beneficiendo et juvando, amicos, qui, si quo repentino casu, quem homines, cum externa omnia mutabilia perdideritis, habeatis, qui vos in domicilia sua benigne receptos, ad vitæ usque finem, rebus necessariis instruant.’

Two additional volumes of these Commentaries are published, which we hope soon to receive.



*Augusta; Roman. 3 Tomes. 1798.**Augusta; a Novel. Dulau.*

THE marquis de Valbont, a man of debauched manners, is captivated at Paris by the modest attractions of Augusta, an English woman of a sedate character; while his melancholy friend and her gay correspondent become enamoured of each other in England. The story is developed in letters; and the following epistle affords a favourable specimen of the talents of the writer.

*Augusta to the Marquis de Valbont.*

‘Be assured, Sir, that you would never have received a letter from me, if your extraordinary conduct, and the scene which I have recently witnessed, had not betrayed those sentiments which render me culpable in my own eyes, and perhaps despicable in yours. Enjoy your triumph, Sir; assimilate the too wretched Augusta to those women whom you have seduced without loving, and who have lost all just pretensions to your esteem. I complain of nothing. Alas! what have I not deserved, since I have dared to transgress a duty, and since I am no longer irreproachable?’

‘If, however, you could read my heart, if you could witness the bitter sorrow which my weakness entails upon me, if you could judge of my own struggles, and of the singular situation in which I have been placed, you might indeed refuse me that esteem which my conduct ought not to obtain; but you would at least grant me your pity.’

‘Why have I not been the only victim of a foolish love? why has the empire of friendship joined its power to the force of a sentiment which I could with difficulty resist? why has that life which is so dear to me, been dangerously threatened? Alas! why have I been reduced to the cruel alternative of seeing that life terminated, or of becoming culpable? It must have been a virtue more than human, that could have resisted so many imperious circumstances. I thought I could save you, and I have sacrificed myself.’

‘Still, Sir, I hope you will not imagine that one dereliction of my principles can make me transgress them a second time. I am far from wishing to raise in your heart a deceitful hope, which it does not depend on me to give. If my consent alone were necessary to link my existence for ever to yours, the unhappy Augusta would not long suffer; but the right to dispose of my hand belongs to my parents; it is only under the auspices of their consent that I will form the ties of marriage; and it is dreadful to me not to be able to conceal from myself, that the views and prejudices of my father will ever be invincible obstacles to my sole wishes and to your love.’

‘ Do not, however, hate Augusta, if she has innocently caused you so much pain; she has suffered nothing but sorrow herself, since that fatal period. Live, if her existence is dear to you; give to her weakness the example of courage and of virtues which undoubtedly you possess in a greater degree. Be the incorruptible guardian of my innocence; strengthen the purity of those sentiments, which a most estimable mother has instilled into my heart; then will you become worthy of the too lively affection with which you have inspired me; I shall blush less for my conduct; I shall perhaps dare to be proud of my love.’

‘ Before we dismiss the work, we will extract another letter.

‘ *The Marquis de Valbont to Miss Augusta.*

‘ It is Augusta who writes to me—O God, support my weakness; give to my heart, enfeebled by its grief, strength to resist the ineffable sensations which it experiences. Yesterday I ardently implored thee to take my life; to-day it would be dreadful to die.—A divine woman partakes of my love; she extends to me the hand of succour; her tender plaintive voice conjures me to regard my own preservation. Yes, my adorable friend! I will live to render myself worthy of your love, and of the happiness which it prepares for me.

‘ Your letter, my virtuous friend, has shed a sovereign balm into my soul, and already I feel its salutary effects; but they would have been more speedy if you had not exhibited to me the cruel picture of those fears of which the bare idea wounds me. Be not *half* generous; permit me to hope that I may one day be united to you. Alas! will this be an illusion? I cannot suffer it to be destroyed. Augusta is doubtless faithful, and loves me truly. What then is the obstacle to our union? the father of Augusta must possess virtues; had he only judgment, your fears would become a phantom. Whatever may be the fate that awaits me, deign to receive my vow. I swear by my love, as by what is most sacred to me, never to light the torch of Hymen but in uniting myself to my Augusta.

‘ You who abhor injustice, how could you write to me not to hate you? Do you not know my sentiments and my heart? Have you not long known the cruel state into which your pretended indifference had plunged me? In one word, ought you not to believe that all the evil you could do me would be an hundred times more precious than all the good which could accrue to me from another? Be not angry; I have effaced from your letter that line which paints ingratitude; surely it was not dictated by your heart.



‘ This is not the only reproach which I must make. To point out the means of deserving you, is to injure my love, and to intimate that I have not known how to value you, that I have mistaken some of your virtues, or that my old errors could still have some dominion over me. Believe, my sweet friend, that the love which Augusta inspires must soon purify even the most corrupted heart, and that no lover could be so audacious as to offer her his homage, without having first raised a temple to innocence, to truth, to all the simple and domestic virtues; it is only after having long burned the incense of a pure heart upon these altars, that he could venture to bring his vows and feelings to your feet. Know your lover better; he may not indeed have all the advantages which he ought to have, to possess you; but he can at least affirm that he never will render himself despicable in your eyes.’

The attempt to imitate Rousseau in these letters will be obvious to every reader; and the author has chosen the same model for his notes: but the inferiority is obvious.—In the first letter, *Boonwicht* is mentioned as the name of a country-seat in England. It is strange that the French will employ such barbarous terms for English words.

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*Lettres choisies de Mesdames de Sevigné et de Maintenon; avec une Préface & des Notes. Par M. l'Abbé de Lévizac. 1798.*

*Select Letters of Madame de Sevigné and Madame de Maintenon. Dulau.*

THE motives for making this selection from the celebrated but voluminous letters of madame de Sevigné are well expressed by M. de Lévizac in his preface. There are two reasons, he says, why the whole work cannot be put into the hands of young persons. ‘ The first is, that nine volumes of letters would become tiresome, from the repetitions indispensable in that kind of composition; and would encroach upon that time which ought to be devoted to other reading, and particularly to such branches of knowledge as constitute essential parts of a good education. Books which only serve to form the taste, ought to occupy only the second place; the first rank is due to books of pure instruction. An education is spoiled when the pupil prefers the pleasures of imagination to those of a cultivated reason. The great art of a preceptor consists in mingling the useful with the agreeable,—in combining one with the other, in such a manner, that the latter shall only discover itself to enhance the value of

the former. The second is, that a great number of these letters are improper for young persons. Two amiable women of wit and feeling, less united by the ties of blood and of a common interest than by that of friendship the most lively and the most sincere; two women educated in the great world, who discoursed familiarly of the events that passed, or of all that could interest them, in that busy and varying scene; who were eager to follow the different movements, to know the anecdotes of the court, to unravel the thread of intrigues, to understand all the little tricks, and to collect even the most trifling *bons-mots*—these women could, in the intimate communications of mutual confidence, give a loose to their natural gaiety; indulge themselves in light and sometimes harsh reflections; and communicate to each other circumstances of the most delicate nature, in letters which were not written with a view to publication. If we also recollect that these women were, the one a mother exceedingly tender, the other a daughter not less affectionate, we shall see that there must have been a freedom in their correspondence, which, though always decent, admitted many subjects less proper for youth. What was for them only a *jeu-d'esprit*, an agreeable pleasantry, or a consequence of the lively interest which each felt for the other, would perhaps be changed into poison for the young. The mind of a young person is as a crystal whose brightness and purity the slightest breath can tarnish; it is a vessel that cannot easily lose the odour of the first liquor that has been poured into it.

These letters are too well known, and their reputation is too well established, to need any additional criticism or praise. The editor has added to this selection grammatical notes, which cannot but be useful to young persons, for whom the volume is chiefly intended. The letters of madame de Maintenon form a very small part of the volume. Biographical sketches of both writers are affixed. We subjoin a few extracts.

‘ Father Bourdaloue preached on Lady-day a sermon which transported every one; it was sufficiently forcible to make the courtiers tremble; never did an evangelical minister preach the Christian truths so nobly, or with such boldness. The object of the discourse was to prove that every power ought to be subject to the law, from the example of our Lord who was presented in the temple: in fine, my child, it was carried to the highest point of perfection; and certain parts were enforced as the apostle Paul would have enforced them.’

‘ The archbishop of Rheims returned yesterday very rapidly from Saint Germain:—it was like a whirlwind. He thought himself a very great man; but his people think



themselves still greater. They passed through Nanterre, crying out, "Clear the way! clear the way!" They met a horseman—"Stand clear! stand clear!" The poor man would have retired to one side; but his horse would not; and the coach and six knocked down the poor man and his horse, and passed over them so completely, that the carriage was overturned. The man and horse, instead of amusing themselves with being crippled, rose up miraculously; and away they fled, whilst the servants of the archbishop, and the prelate himself, cried out, "Stop, stop that rascal, that he may have a hundred blows." The archbishop, in relating this, said, "If I could have caught the rascal, I would have broken his bones, and have cut off his ears."

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' Here is an anecdote which you may believe as if you had heard it yourself. The king said one morning, "I think, indeed, that we shall not be able to succour Philipsbourg; but I shall not the less be king of France." M. de Montausier,

Qui pour le pape ne diroit

Une chose qu'il ne croiroit,

replied, "It is true, Sir, you would still be king of France, even if you should lose Metz, Toul & Verdun, La Comté, and many other provinces beyond which your predecessors passed." Every one was silent; and the king very graciously answered, "I understand you, M. de Montausier; you mean to insinuate that my affairs are going on very badly; but I am not displeased at what you say; for I know how your heart is inclined towards me."

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' Providence conducts us with so much goodness through the different periods of our life, that we do not perceive our progress. This loss comes on easily, it is imperceptible, it is the shadow of the sun-dial whose motion we do not see. If, at twenty years of age, we could see in a mirror the face we shall have at three-score, we should be shocked at the contrast, and terrified at our own figure; but it is day by day that we advance; we are to-day as we were yesterday, and shall be to-morrow as we are to-day: so we go on without feeling it, and this is a miracle of that Providence which I adore.'

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' M. de Montausier has written a letter to Monseigneur upon the taking of Philipsbourg, which greatly pleases me. "Monseigneur, I do not compliment you upon the capture of Philipsbourg; you had a good army, bombs, cannon, and Vauban: neither shall I compliment you upon your valour; for that is an hereditary virtue in your family. But I rejoice that you are liberal, generous, humane, and that you know how to recompense the services of those who behave well: it is for this that I congratulate you."

The following letter is by madame de Maintenon, addressed to her brother. Our readers cannot but be pleased with it.

'We can only be unhappy by our own fault; this shall always be my text, and my reply to your lamentations. Recollect, my dear brother, the voyage to America, the misfortunes of our father, of our infancy and our youth; and you will bless Providence instead of murmuring against fortune. Ten years ago we were both very far below our present situation; and our hopes were so feeble that we limited our wishes to a revenue of three thousand livres. At present we have four times that sum; and our desires are not yet satisfied! We enjoy that happy mediocrity which you have so often extolled; let us be content. If possessions come to us, let us receive them from the hand of God, but let not our views be extravagant. We have every thing necessary and comfortable; all the rest is avarice; all these desires of greatness spring from a restless heart. Your debts are all paid, and you may live elegantly without contracting more. What have you to desire? Must schemes of wealth and ambition occasion the loss of your repose and your health? Read the life of St. Louis; you will see how unequal the greatness of this world is to the desires of the human heart; God only can satisfy them. I repeat it—you are only unhappy by your own fault. Your uneasiness destroys your health, which you ought to preserve, if it were only because I love you. Watch your temper: if you can render it less splenetic and less gloomy, you will have gained a great advantage. This is not the work of reflection only: exercise, amusement, and a regulated life, are necessary for the purpose. You cannot think well whilst your health is affected: when the body is debilitated, the mind is without vigour. Adieu! write to me more frequently, and in a style less gloomy.'

*Tableau Historique et Politique de l'Administration de la République Française pendant l'Année 1797, des Causes qui ont amené la Révolution du 4-Septembre, et de ses Résultats.*

*Historical and Political View of the Administration of France during the Year 1797; with an Inquiry into the Causes and Effects of the Revolution of the 4th of September. By Sir Francis D'Ivernois. 8vo. Elmsly. 1798.*

THE citizen of Geneva finds, in the transactions of every year, sufficient resources for a new volume; and those who have read his former publications will easily conceive what his opinion must be on the subjects which he discusses in this vo-



lume. The end which he now proposes is, to demonstrate, 'by the confessions of the French themselves, that they are weakened by their conquests, and ruined by their robberies, and that they have delayed to this moment their catastrophe, only to render it more striking.' The confessions are speeches in the two councils; but, unfortunately for our writer, the approach to this catastrophe is made by the addition of fresh conquests, and a more imperious interference in the affairs of Europe. Throughout we may observe one fault (and a very common fault it is), that he reasons upon the actions of a revolutionary government, as if it were in a state of profound peace, undisturbed by foreign war or domestic factions. He makes no allowances for measures which a nation might be constrained to adopt; and, forgetful of his own republican sentiments, he seems to detest every thing republican in the French commonwealth. We might point out his propensity to exaggeration in the affairs of mandats and assignats. 'I now finish (he says) the history of assignats and mandats, of an unexampled robbery committed upon a whole nation, and favoured by all its citizens.' This robbery, however, had an example in an event which occurred some years ago in America; and, if all the citizens were pleased with it, the depredation could not be very dreadful. We must, however, make allowances for our author, who prognosticated the fall of the paper currency, as did every man who understood the subject; but he was unfortunate in associating with that fall the ruin of the republic. We were surprised that he should make this mistake, when we found that he considered the stoppage of the bank in our own country as a very fortunate event. The fact is, that kingdoms do not rise or fall by means of paper; and though, in a falling kingdom, paper necessarily falls with it, yet another state, whilst the paper is losing its value, may be increasing in strength.

We could not but smile at another fancy of this writer, that France was saved in 1792 by its fortified towns. He forgets, that the duke of Brunswick had passed the line of fortifications, and had nothing to oppose him in his march to Paris but the courage of his enemies; and, if the combined troops had not wasted their strength before Valenciennes, it is most probable, that they would have found the grave or captivity the reward of their indiscretion, long before they were in sight of the metropolis. The opinion of Machiavel, that money is not the sinew of war, we conceive to be just; and it is in vain that our author talks of the present expense of war, since the French have proved, that discipline and tactics are easily acquired, where the heart is firm, and that fortified towns make little resistance to soldiers who are inflamed with the real or even with the imaginary spirit of liberty.

The generous Germans, as they are called, are without doubt highly flattered by the compliment, that they were 'shedding their blood for the defence of religion, for the support of social order, and for the preservation of the equilibrium of the grand European republic.' These are pompous words: but a German prince had other thoughts, when he let out his men at so much a-head for this cause; and the miserable peasant, whose tactics had been beaten into him *à coup de canne*, had no other idea in his head, than the apprehension of military chastisement, if he did not follow his leader.

With regard to those Germans who have not yet taken an active part in the war, we do not think that they will be roused by the exhortations of the Genevese knight. 'To arms, brave Germans! to arms! to arms! Let this cry resound in the palaces of all your princes, and thence be re-echoed even to the cottage of the poor man; for even he has that at stake which is his only good—the consolations of religion.' We will suppose the poor of Germany, from remarks which we have personally made, to consist of about one fifth of the nation; and as they have nothing to fight for but their religion, which Christianity does not allow to be a subject for arms, they will most probably disregard this call. The other subjects of the state will be more attentive. 'Your all says our author, 'is at stake: your properties, your laws, your independence, your civilisation, the patrimony which you have inherited from your fathers, and, above all, that national morality which distinguishes you so honourably from other nations, and which would soon fall under the pestilential influence of French principles. May the preservation of so much happiness inflame the courage of your warriors! Rally under the standard of a new chief, since the old one has forsaken you; and, if the day of battle must come, show what the German nation can do, when it rises in a mass for the defence of every thing which is dear to man.'

We were better pleased with the remarks on lotteries.

'All the facts, which I have been able to collect in my travels, respecting the consequences of various taxes levied by the principal sovereigns of Europe, have convinced me, that the most judicious, as well as the most benevolent, is that which trebles, or sometimes raises tenfold, the price of spirituous liquors, and that the most pernicious of all, without controversy, is the tax on the poor, occasioned by those scandalous tables for Pharaoh, of which the rulers of states do not blush to make themselves the bankers. Although the English lotteries are much less pernicious than those which I have just mentioned, I do not know whether the British parliament can be entirely absolved, since it continues to have recourse to this disastrous mode of supply; and I dare to hope that



it will soon renounce it, on considering that the measures devised to prevent the lower classes from engaging in the lotteries have been always fruitless. We cannot too much lament, that some philosophic visitor of prisons, like Howard, has not endeavoured to obtain from the wretched inhabitants a confession of the first faults which brought them to misery and crimes. They will, it may be concluded, confess, that the hopes of great wealth were the first attractions which carried to the lottery-office the produce, first of their savings, afterwards of their thefts. A collection of such confessions would be doubly instructive, since it would enable the government to calculate, whether it is not obliged, as I believe it is, to defray in criminal proceedings, in prison expenses, in punishments, and on the police, far more than the trifling revenue derived from lotteries.'

There is more of declamation than of argument in this work; and the conclusions drawn by the author from facts, are not always just. For the contemplation of revolutionary causes and consequences, he has not a sound discerning eye, or a mind unwarped by the prejudices of party.

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*Jesus Puer; Poëma Thomæ Cevæ, 8vo. Berlin.*

*The Boy Jesus; a Poem, by Thomas Ceva. Imported by De Boffe.*

TO give our readers an idea of the contents of this volume, we will translate with some degree of freedom a part of the author's prefatory address.

'That Jesus, while he was yet a child, gradually manifested his divinity to his countrymen of Nazareth, we are informed by Athanasius, the prelate Titus, Theodoret, St. Vincent, and others. This striking fact I thought proper to make the ground-work of an epic poem. I planned and arranged the subject in the following manner. The heavenly infant having returned from Egypt to his native country, the devil at first laboured to effect his destruction by open hostilities, and afterwards had recourse to artifice for preventing or obscuring the display of his divinity: but all such schemes were unsuccessful; for the Nazarenes detected the machinations of the evil spirit, and at length acknowledged, as God, the boy whose oracles had long kept them in suspense, and whose character had excited their love and admiration. I have thus given you, gentle reader, a rude sketch of my production, which, from the mixture of humble and illustrious characters, partakes both of the comic and heroic species of poetry.'

In the exordium, the poet invokes the aid of the Virgin Mary and her son, and solicits their guidance 'through places now first traversed by the muses of Latium'—

'Per loca nunc primum Latiis peragrata Camœnis.'

This passage is not consistent either with truth or with the author's remark in the preface, intimating that, in giving a poetical view of the merits of Christ, and of various particulars connected with that subject, he should follow the example of Vida and other writers, who, we know, made use of the Latin tongue in the pieces alluded to.

The Virgin, on her return to Nazareth from Egypt, is thus received.

'—— ubi Susannæ bona Virgo evasit in ædes,  
Hic fragor, hic strepitus, amplexus, oscula mille,  
Mille hilares voces, mixtumque sine ordine discors  
Undique murmur erat.'

The phrase *sine ordine discors* is inelegant and tautologous; and the whole passage is flat and unpoetical.—The writer adds,

'Nec viso littore nautæ,  
Nec genitrix nato, nec conjuge nupta recepto,  
Quem bello, aut pelago extinctum decepta putarat,  
Nec quidquid possunt læti sibi fingere noctu  
Insomnes vates, æquare hæc gaudia possint.  
O tandem post secla redux! o denique sospes  
Reddita lux orbæ patriæ, expectata tot annis!  
Ut formosa redis nil cœlo decolor illo!  
Quæ via, qui cursus, quæ fors inopina revexit?  
Ecce humeris curvis octogenaria conjux  
Alphæi, explicitis ulnis, edentula voces  
Non intellectas labiis conatur utrisque,  
Et gnatham (sic illa vocat) complexa fatigat.  
En Beroe, en veniens e torcularibus Abra,  
Musta recentia utraque manu lætissima portans,  
Cui puer hinc Ammon, hinc Ruben vestibibus hærent.  
Mox Debora ascensu subit improvise repente,  
Ingenti clamore ruens in colla, lacertis  
Injectis hærens non extricabilis: ipsa  
Candidior nive Cissa latrans formosa catella  
Agnoscit reducem, et circum mille implicat orbis,  
Et vestes scalpit, genibusque audacula reptat.'

The appearance of Jesus, on this occasion, is compared to that of a rose blooming in the midst of snow.

'—— pulcherrimus Infans  
Stabat, ut in mediis nivibus rosa nata Decembri,  
Quam circum canæ glacies mirantur et imbres  
Vernantem, nec duram hiemem nimbosque timentem.'



The devil soon commences hostilities against the divine infant. The evil spirit is introduced to the reader by a curious simile.

Qualis formosum niveâ cervice catellum,  
Virgineo in-gremio manibus quem comit eburnis  
Fœmina, sic meritum cernens dolet invidus, ore  
Allatratque rudi turpis quandoque molossus,  
Dilectus dominæ ille etiam, cum candidus olim,  
Et tener, et blandus fuerat; nunc vincula collo  
Gestantem absterrent mensis, et postibus arcent:  
Haud aliter Puerum cœlestem dum videt hostis  
Luridus, ipse etiam quondam, cum degeret astris,  
Delicium cœli; ringit, totusque veneno  
Livescit miser, et partes se versat in omnes,  
Lædere si tenerum queat, atque absumere letho."

Here the devil is compared to a mastiff, who, when he was a puppy, had been fondled by his mistress, but was afterwards supplanted in her good graces by a young canine rival, who was therefore the object of his hatred. Our Saviour, caressed by his fond mother, is here typified by the lap-dog; a comparison which must be considered as derogatory from the dignity of his character and the divinity of his mission.

At a mournful meeting of the Nazarene matrons, the devil is discovered in the disguise of an old woman.

—Medios inter ploratus cuncta scelestus  
Ille explorator Stygius terrore repente,  
Rid culoque metu implevit. Nam federat herba  
Ipse etiam in viridi lugens, spissoque nigroque  
Se abdiderat panno, viduæ ore, habituque Phenennæ,  
Ereptosque sibi geminos ululare nepotes  
Conabatur.'——

When his cloven foot appears, the women are at first terrified, but are soon encouraged by the Virgin to attack the enemy of her son.

Diriguere metu cunctæ; simul agmine facto  
Terga dabant: tenuit Virgo, excussoque pavore  
Obscœnam vetulam certatim murmure magno  
Sandaliis jactu alterno, faxisque petitam  
Turba puellarum insequitur.'

An account is given of a journey of Mary and the child to the abode of John the Baptist. Here they are exposed to danger from the enmity of Satan: but an angel is sent from

heaven to transport them through the air to Paradise. An engagement ensues between a celestial army and the followers of the devil; and the latter, as we might expect, are discomfited.

The progenitors of Christ, of the race of Abraham, repair to the place of his retreat from their subterranean abodes. They are entertained with a drama and other representations, and are then dismissed under angelic escort. The play is thus mentioned by our poet:

‘ ———procul ante ora augustum se tollit ad auras  
Pegma, pavimenti extrema de parte, corusco  
Sipario obductum. Post velum scena, chorique,  
Actoresque latent Genii, pulcherrima pubes,  
In seram noctem spectacula mira daturi  
Hospitibus Divis. Titulus de fornice pendet  
*Oscula Justitiæ, et Pacis.* Jamque aurea rite  
Cymbala proludunt chordis: jam pompa latentis  
Se reteggit scenæ: jamque alta silentia poscit  
Sibilus. En sensim subducitur aëre velum.  
Proh! quæ immortalis species! quæ regia! quæ lux!  
Quæ domus ætheria! Hem qualis sedet ardua gemmis  
In folio regina nitens! quot fulgurat astris  
Intextum syrma aërium! quas jam dabit illa  
Fronte gravi voces! ut plena silentia sancto  
Terrore! ut tragicis dictis jam præparet ora!

‘ Argumentum operis, Majestas læsa Tonantis:  
Justitia hinc acuens iras; Pax flebilis illinc  
Exorans veniam. Nodum Sapientia solvit;  
Proponitque, inter Numenque Hominemque, sequestrum  
Unigenam, nostro velatum corpore Numen.  
Discutitur, placet inventum: suprema Potestas  
Commissum sibi spondet opus. Sic lite dirempta  
Acceptis hinc atque hinc conditionibus æquis,  
*Oscula Justitiæ et Pacis spectacula claudunt.*’

After the return of the Virgin and Jesus from the garden of Eden, they remain for some time in tranquillity. Suddenly the child disappears. The sensations of his mother, when she first misses him, are tamely described:

‘ ———Tum se,  
Tum comites circum, et latus hinc atque hinc desertum,  
Atque manum vacuum cœlesti pignore sensit.’

The following lines are more spirited, but are not very elegant:

‘ Quo non jactatæ voces, repetitaque Jesu  
Nomina, per muros pagi, per frondea lustra,



Illatæque faces? quos non adiere penates  
 Mœrentes sociæ per opaca silentia noctis?  
 Heu quid agant? quo se vertant? namque undique stellis  
 Tempore jam longo cœli convexa refulgent;  
 Nec fas nocturnum per iter vestigia retro  
 Ferre per obscuros calles, perque avia cœca:  
 Ire vetant trepidæ matres, arcentque volentem.  
 Semianimis, lugens, et acuta cuspide fixa,  
 Postquam alte ingruerat sero expectantibus umbra,  
 Orba suo infelix Nato, caput obsita velo,  
 Singultusque ciens bona Virgo in tecta redibat:  
 Tota sequebatur largo vicinia fletu.'

The Nazarenes being in great affliction at the loss of the child, God sends an angel to restore him to their wishes. The arts of Satan are baffled; and Jesus enters Jerusalem in solemn procession. On this joyful occasion—

——— Campi, nemora avia, valles  
 Carminibus vatum resonant: O splendor Olympi!  
 O lux in tenebris exorta! o Legifer orbis  
 Expectate diu! o nostros miserare labores!  
 Parce Pater, parce Omnipotens. Mens omnibus æstro  
 Afflatur divo, Regemque, Hominemque, Deumque  
 Paciferumque vocant, et sanctum Numen adorant.  
 Quaque iter est, ramos curvat subeuntibus arbos:  
 Desuper omnigenum cernuntur nubila Divum  
 Plena choris. Alto Pater ipse e culmine mundi  
 Aspicit e folio reduces; atque omnis ab astris  
 Cœlestum populus, portas quoque, tecta summa,  
 Et muros pagi, et turres infederat. Ipse  
 Ætherios inter comites pulcherrimus omnes,  
 Hoste triumphato, Jesseius it Puer, instar  
 Sideris eoi; signant vestigia acanthi,  
 Mixtaque parthenio bellis, convolvulus, iris,  
 Et crocei flores campi. Sic ille redibat;  
 Nazareisque suis, post tot discrimina, lucem  
 Auroramque, redux materna in tecta, ferebat.'

So ends the poem of Ceva. It is not a performance of extraordinary merit. It does not abound with sublime or elegant effusions; but is, for the most part, tasteless and uninteresting. It would, however, be illiberal and uncandid to deny that various passages are worthy of the approbation of the scholar.

*L'Institutrice et son Elève; ou Dialogues à l'Usage des Jeunes Demoiselles. 2 Vols. 12mo. 1798.*

*The Instructress and her Pupil; or, Dialogues for the Use of Young Ladies. Dulau.*

THIS work is the production of M. le Noir, and is intended as a continuation of the Companion of Youth (*la Compagne de la Jeunesse*), which he had before published for the instruction of females. It is adapted to the education of young ladies for the four last years of their course of study. 'I treat not (he says in the preface) either of arts or of sciences. My purpose is to instruct young persons in the duties of life—to form their hearts to the love of virtue by a slow but sure progress. My work may therefore be considered as a course of practical morality.'

The dialogues are well calculated for the end which the author had in view. Modern barbarisms are avoided in the style; and the advice given is prudent and judicious. In the last dialogue some didactic verses are introduced, from a work attributed to Fenelon. They resemble the golden verses of the Pythagoreans.

*Quelques Observations d'un Cosmopolite sur le Projet de fermer le Weser et l'Elbe au Commerce de la Grande Bretagne. 4to. 1797.*

*Some Remarks, by a Citizen of the World, on the Project of excluding the British Nation from the Commerce of the Elbe and the Weser.*

THE Cosmopolite examines, in a few pages, the French scheme of depriving Great Britain of the advantages of trade and all other intercourse with Germany. If it should be practicable, it would, he says, be more prejudicial to other nations than to the English; for, 'of the merchandise transported from England to the Elbe and the Weser, seven-eighths are not upon the account of the English, but of the subjects of different continental states.' He urges a dereliction of the scheme, not only on the grounds of reason and equity, but from the considerations of interest and policy. The French, in their public conduct, are more actuated by the two last motives than by the two first; but, as they are strongly inclined to indulge their animosity against our nation, they may perhaps endeavour to enforce such a measure, regardless of the jealousy or offence which it may give to other powers.



# OCCASIONAL RETROSPECT

OF

## FOREIGN LITERATURE.

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### FRANCE.

THE French continue to publish a variety of works. The sciences are more eagerly cultivated among them than we might expect from the unsettled state of their affairs; and the *belles lettres*, with the exception of some branches, are as much the objects of pursuit as in the days of their monarchy. But our catalogue of their publications must still be imperfect.

Principes de la Philosophie du Botaniste, &c. Elements of the Philosophy of the Botanist, 2 vols. 8vo. Paris, 1798. Joly Le-Clerc is the author of this work. It is composed on philosophical principles, and will prove useful to the students of a pleasing science.

Nosographie Philosophique, &c. Philosophical Nosography or Nosology, by Professor Pinel.—This physician has applied analytical investigation to the medical science, not wholly without success.

Analyse Raisonnée du Systeme de Brown, &c. A Critical Analysis of the System of Brown, 8vo.—Dr. Schiferti supports the system of our countryman by various remarks.

Tableau Élémentaire, &c. An Elementary View of the History of Animals.—M. Cuvier prepared this work for the use of the central schools; and he deserves praise for the execution of his task.

Origines Gauloises, &c. Gallic Origins traced, by La-Tour d'Auvergne-Corret, 8vo.—This writer endeavours to prove, that most of the nations of Europe and Asia are of Celtic descent; but he is not very able or successful in his investigations.

Mémoire et Projet, &c. A Memoir and Plan for the Restoration of the French Pantheon.—The architect La-Barre evinces, in this plan, some degree of judgment.

La Politique d'Aristote, &c. The Politics of Aristotle, or the Science of Government; translated from the Greek.

and illustrated with Notes, by Champagne, 2 vols. 8vo. 1797. —In the introduction, M. Champagne has given an analysis of the work; and, in the notes, he has entered into a wide field of useful disquisition. The translation, though not so accurate as that of Dr. Gillies, is far from being contemptible.

Vie de Julius Agricola. The Life of Agricola, translated from Tacitus, 12mo.—This excellent piece of biography appears to as much advantage in a French dress, as those who are acquainted with the important difference between that and the Latin language can expect.

Les Artistes. The Artists, a Comedy in Verse.—When this piece was represented on the stage, it was very unfavorably received; but the author (Colin d'Harleville) was not discouraged from printing it. Though some parts have merit, it is not, upon the whole, a good play.

Consolations, &c. Roucher's Consolations in his Captivity, 2 vols. 8vo.—The letters and other productions of this unhappy 'victim of decemviral tyranny,' as he is called in the title-page, are pleasing and interesting.

Observations, &c. Remarks on the Beautiful and Sublime.—We have here a French translation of a performance (by Kant) of no great merit.

Les Emigrés justifiés. A Justification of the Conduct of the French Emigrants, by F. T——d.—This vindicator is too intemperate in his effusions against the republicans, to be likely to obtain pardon for his friends.

Œuvres Morales, &c. Works of Morality and Amusement, by Duclos, 4 vols. 8vo.—This writer excels in works of the former kind, more than in those of the latter description. His travels in Italy form a part of this collection.

## HOLLAND.

Jan Hendrik van Swinden Lykrede, &c. An Eulogium upon Peter Nieuwland, 8vo.—M. Nieuwland was an able cultivator of the sciences connected with the mathematics; and his attainments in several branches of polite literature were not contemptible.

Adres en Vertoog, &c. A Scheme for the Improvement of Medicine and Chirurgery, in Holland, by D. Heilbron, 8vo. Hague.—This scheme was presented to the national assembly of the Batavian republic; but that body did not fully approve it.

## SWITZERLAND.

Versuch eines Handbuchs, &c. Sketch of a Statistic Manual relative to Switzerland, 8vo. Zürich, 1796. Pre-



feffor Fäfi, son of the late geographer of that name, has here given a variety of useful information.

Archiv für Staatswissenschaft und Gesetzgebung. Archives of Politics and Legislation, vols. I. II. Zürich.—This publication contains the effence of a number of treatises, arranged in alphabetical order. The compiler is M. von Egger, whose industry seems to be greater than his judgment.

## G E R M A N Y.

S. F. N. Mori Prælectiones Exegeticae in tres Johannis Epistolas. Explanatory Lectures upon the three Epistles of John. Leipzig, 1796.

Die Republik, &c. An Account of the Republic of the Grisons, by Lehmann. Magdeburg.—The same writer has also published a description of the Valteline.

Nachricht von der Britischen, &c. An Account of the British Embassy to China, by J. C. Huttner. Berlin.—M. Huttner was in the *suite* of earl Macartney; and he had therefore an opportunity of procuring authentic information, with regard to the circumstances which he has mentioned in this volume. In some particulars this performance will serve as a supplement to the work of sir G. Staunton.

Neuestes Gemälde von Wien. The latest View of Vienna, 1797.—In this volume is a comprehensive statistic account of that great metropolis.

Briefe über Schweiz, &c. Letters relative to Switzerland and Italy, 2 vols. 8vo.—These epistles, written by a son of the celebrated Jacobi, are entertaining rather than profound.

Parentalia in Memoriam Friderici Gulielmi II. Borussiarum Regis, &c. Funeral Offerings of Praise to the Memory of the late King of Prussia. Halle, 1797.

Seiner Königlichen Majestät Friedrik Wilhelm dem III. bey der Thronbesteigung allerunterthänigst Überreicht von F. Genz. An Humble Address to Frederic William III. on his Accession to the Prussian Throne. Berlin, 1797.

Erzählungen von Albert Klebe. Tales by Klebe, vol. I. 8vo. Magdeburg, 1797.—In this volume we find an interesting Polish story, entitled Julia Kanowska and Alexander Wielenki.

Grundlinien, &c. Outlines of a Theory of the Art of Theatrical Performance, by M. von Einfiedel. Leipzig.—This is a pleasing sketch; and it will be followed by a larger work.

Allgemeine Geschichte, &c. A general History of the Culture and Literature of Modern Europe, vol. I. Göttingen.—This history, which proceeds from the pen of M.

Eichhorn, begins about the year 1100. The first period extends to 1450; the second will involve two hundred years from that date; and the third will reach to the present times. This volume is well written; and the information which it contains is drawn from the best sources.

Aristophanis Ranae. The Comedy of the Frogs, by Aristophanes, vol. I. 8vo.—M. Höpfner has here given the text and the *scholia*: his commentary will follow.

Unterhaltungen, &c. The Meditations of the Emperor Antoninus, translated into German.—M. Reche has evinced his diligence and judgement on this occasion; and, to an accurate translation, has added many illustrative remarks.

### S W E D E N.

Inledning til Kännedom, &c. An Introduction to the Antiquities of Sweden, 8vo. Lunden, 1797.—To Sjöborg are antiquaries indebted for this work, in which he has well treated the subject.

Fauna Suecica. The Swedish Fauna, by Paykull, vol. I. Upsal.—This volume comprehends a description of insects of the beetle kind.

### D E N M A R K.

Arzneymittellehre, &c. The Materia Medica of Minerals, by Professor Tode, 8vo. vol. I. Copenhagen, 1797.—Dr. Tode is distinguished by his medical learning and ability. This work is well digested; and it contains important information.



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**A REVIEW**  
**OF**  
**PUBLIC AFFAIRS,**  
**FROM**

the Beginning of MAY, to the End of AUGUST, 1798.

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**GREAT-BRITAIN.**

**T**HE trials for high treason, which have occurred in this kingdom during the present war, seem to have more strongly attracted the public attention than those of any former period. To the extraordinary warmth of party zeal, and bitterness of animosity, which we have witnessed since the French revolution, this anxiety may be chiefly attributed. The supposed prevalence of a republican spirit among a considerable part of the British nation, has given great alarm to the supporters of the existing government; and they wish for the exemplary punishment of those who have instilled into the minds of their countrymen principles so repugnant to the constitution. But their zeal has been so undiscerning, that they have confounded the advocates of temperate constitutional reform with the partisans of wild and indiscriminate innovation. The former have been said to be as dangerous as the latter; for their professions are represented as insincere and hypocritical; but such assertions may be confi-

dered as calumnious charges, proceeding from the rancor of party rather than from just grounds of suspicion. *Reform*, says a ministerial senator, is synonymous with *revolution*; and those who profess the *one*, aim at the *other*. However we may be inclined to controvert this opinion, we must allow that it is very prevalent. Many of those who entertain it would probably have rejoiced, if the individuals who were tried in London upon a charge of treason, in the year 1794, had been condemned and put to death on no stronger evidence than was then adduced. But the moderate, the liberal, and the judicious, applauded the humanity and the patriotism displayed by the jurors in their decisions upon those trials. The zealots, however, continued to stigmatise as delinquents those who were pronounced innocent by a legal verdict; and, when Mr. O'Connor and other suspected persons were apprehended at Margate, the hopes of vengeance, which a candid jury had disappointed, revived with additional strength.

Though the apprehension of the supposed mal-contents took place so early as the 28th of February, their trials did not commence before the 21st of May. The judges Buller, Heath, and Laurence, presided on the occasion. After some animadversions on the unjustifiable behaviour of the *reverend* Arthur Young, who had endeavoured to prejudice the minds of several of the summoned jurymen against the prisoners ('with a view that they should go into court *avowedly determined* in their verdict, *no matter what the evidence*\*'), the selection of jurors took place amidst various challenges both from the crown and the prisoners; and the attorney-general stated the charges adduced against the latter, and the grounds on which the accusation rested. It could be proved, he said, that James O'Coigly, John Allen, and Jeremiah Leary, had repaired in February to an inn at Margate, where they were joined by Arthur O'Connor and John Binns; that O'Coigly and the two last-mentioned individuals assumed names which did not belong to them; and that Binns had previously bar-

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\* These words occur in a letter written by Mr. Young.



gained, both at Whitstable and at Deal, for a vessel to convey him and his friends to one of the ports of France or of Holland. The meeting of all the five at Margate, he added, seemed to be preconcerted, though they pretended that they were not acquainted with each other. When they were apprehended, a pocket-book belonging to O'Coigly was found, containing an address from the 'secret committee of England to the executive directory of France.'

In this paper the *committee* requested the *great nation* to 'pour forth its gigantic force,' that an oppressed people might 'carol forth the praises of France at the altar of liberty;' promised that Englishmen would be ready to second the efforts of the French; and stated, that the system of borrowing, 'which had hitherto enabled our tyrants to disturb the peace of a whole world,' was at an end; that disaffection prevailed both in the army and navy; and that Englishmen, seeing themselves 'every day bereft of some part of the poor fragment of democracy which they had hitherto enjoyed,' had become sensible of the necessity of preparing a new constitution. Not only the partisans of the ministry, but the parliamentary members of opposition, were censured in this address. It was said to be the 'interest of each faction to keep the people in the dark;' and the anti-ministerial declaimers were represented as unworthy of confidence, since, 'under the semblance of moderate reform,' they 'only wished to climb into power.'

Of the treasonable views of the framers of this address, no doubt, said the attorney-general, could be entertained; and, though it was not absolutely certain that all the prisoners were acquainted with its purport, it was highly probable that they were. He read some papers, which, he thought, tended to prove that O'Connor, in particular, intended to go to France, and that he was privy to the scheme of sending or conveying the address to that country. He also produced a paper from which it appeared that O'Coigly had before visited France; and, referring to a passage in the address,

which intimated that the citizen who would deliver it had, on a former occasion, communicated to the directory the sentiments of the committee, he thought it reasonable to conclude, from all the circumstances, that O'Coigly meditated an immediate voyage to France as the bearer of the traitorous invitation.

The witnesses for the crown were then examined at considerable length; and, on the following day, Mr. Plomer, in an elaborate speech, defended O'Connor, rather than any of the other prisoners, against the charges adduced. He spoke of him as a man who, by his talents and good qualities, had acquired the friendship and esteem of persons of great merit and distinction, and who, though an advocate for particular reforms, had never shown himself hostile to the constitution. He denied that his client had the least connexion with the political societies established for the promotion of pure reform or for worse purposes; and he ridiculed the idea of his concern in the alleged invitation to the French, not only from the absurdity and falsehood of various parts of the address, but from the great improbability of his concurring in a paper which pointed out, as betrayers of the cause of liberty, and as marks for the vengeance of the foe, the very men with whom he had lived in habits of cordial intimacy. He admitted, that O'Connor was desirous of quitting the kingdom; but affirmed, that no *proof* existed of his intention of repairing to France to solicit an invasion from the enemy, and that even a *presumption* of such criminality was too unreasonable to be cherished by persons of any candor or liberality.

When Mr. Gurney and other barristers had harangued the court in behalf of Binns, Allen, and Leary, some witnesses were brought forward with a view of invalidating the charges; and the character of Mr. O'Connor was represented in a very favorable light by the earls of Suffolk and Thanet, messieurs Fox, Sheridan, Erskine, and other gentlemen of the anti-ministerial party. The eloquence of Mr. Dallas was then



exerted in the defence of the accused persons ; and O'Coigly, speaking for himself, declared that he ' never was the bearer of any letter or message to the directory of France,' and that the ' absurd and ridiculous' address to which the counsel had referred ' was not his paper.' Sir Francis Buller summed up the evidence in a fair and accurate manner ; and the jury, after some deliberation, declared O'Coigly guilty, but acquitted the four other prisoners.

The judge had no sooner pronounced sentence of death upon O'Coigly, than a disturbance arose. Mr. O'Connor was preparing to quit the court, when some civil officers stopped him. Some of the spectators interposing in his behalf, soldiers rushed in ; blows were interchanged ; and general confusion prevailed. Tranquillity, however, was soon restored ; and, it being intimated to O'Connor, that he could not be liberated, as a warrant for his arrest upon another charge, dated on the 22d of March, had been signed by the duke of Portland, he was re-conducted to prison.

As the evidence of the guilt of O'Coigly was sufficiently strong, it was not to be expected that he would receive a pardon. On the 7th of June, he was conveyed to Pennenden heath, near Maidstone ; and, after solemn declarations of his innocence, he was hanged till life seemed totally extinguished, and was then decapitated. He was the son of an Irish farmer ; and not being wholly illiterate, had been ordained a priest of the Romish church. He entered into the views of the malcontents of Ireland, and, when he was in danger of being seized, came over to England, where he was so closely watched, that he could not execute (what we may fairly conclude to have been) his intentions of repairing to France, and joining the enemies of his sovereign.

The case of Mr. O'Connor occasioned some observations in both houses of parliament. Those which lord Holland made in the house of peers tended to accuse the ministry of having infringed a clause in the late bill for the suspension of the *habeas-corpus* act, by which it was ordained, that persons who

were in custody at the time of its enactment should be tried as if no such bill had passed. The lord-chancellor replied, that the clause did not preclude the government from detaining Mr. O'Connor for an offence distinct from that for which he was in custody at the time in question.—In the other house, Mr. St.-John entered into a detail of the cases both of Arthur and Roger O'Connor, and animadverted on the injustice of detaining those individuals as prisoners; but a motion which he made on the subject was rejected.

Of the debates which occurred between the beginning of May and the close of the session, some were uninteresting. Among other subjects of discussion, the nature of the bill for the redemption of the land-tax \* was repeatedly investigated. The chancellor of the exchequer proposed, that an alteration should be made in favor of the proprietor of the land, who, if he should be inclined to purchase the tax with which it was burthened, might complete his bargain by the transfer of stock productive (in its annual dividend) of a tenth part beyond the amount of the impost; but that a third person who should become a purchaser should, according to the original plan, be required to add a fifth part. This point will be perfectly clear to every one of our readers, if we state, that, where an owner of land pays for it a tax of fifteen pounds *per annum*, he may redeem it with stock which will produce sixteen pounds ten shillings in the year; while another individual who may purchase a tax to that amount, will be obliged to give in exchange a dividend of eighteen pounds *per annum*. The proposal was adopted by the house; but the bill was opposed by lord Sheffield, sir John Sinclair, and other members; and Mr. Hussey lamented that, instead of regulating the land-tax upon equitable principles, the house should be disposed to perpetuate the inequality of that partial impost. In the upper house, the political veteran lord Thurlow, and the juvenile orator lord Holland, condemned the plan both in principle and in detail. It was

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\* See the 569th page of our last Appendix.



plausibly defended by the lords Auckland and Grenville, and sanctioned by a great majority.

A debate which arose from a motion respecting a bill for more effectually manning the navy, led to a duel between Mr. Pitt and Mr. Tierney. When it was proposed by the former, on the 25th of May, that the protections against being forced into the service should be suspended, and that a bill for that purpose should pass through all its stages in the course of that day, the latter objected to such unnecessary precipitation, and hinted at the necessity of watching all the proceedings of the minister with a jealous eye, lest the small remains of liberty should be wrested from the people. Mr. Pitt replied, that his ideas of liberty were very different from those of Mr. Tierney, if this objector considered every measure of national defence as hostile to the freedom of the subject; and he added, that the motive for opposing the present application could be no other than a desire of *impeding the service and defence of the country*. Resenting this imputation, Mr. Tierney appealed to the chair; and the speaker declared, that, if such language had been used, it was unparliamentary and disorderly: but Mr. Pitt disdained the idea of explanation or apology. The bill quickly passed through both houses; but the animosity of the two members did not end with the debate. Mr. Pitt, being challenged by Mr. Tierney, met him on Putney heath; and a duel ensued; but no injury was received by either of the gentlemen.

*Men of honor*, as the advocates for single combat style themselves, would undoubtedly have censured the minister, if he had not accepted the challenge of the person whom he had offended; and they would also, we think, have blamed Mr. Tierney if he had not insisted either on an apology or an hostile meeting. But it certainly was not necessary for either of the disputants to proceed to extremities, merely to avoid the imputation of cowardice. Allowance should be made for the freedom of debate; and, even if a member should, in a very reprehensible degree, transgress the limits of decorum, the cool dignity of contempt is the best answer to his intemperance.

The licentiousness of the editors of anti-ministerial newspapers being a frequent subject of complaint among the friends of the court, the attorney-general undertook the task of checking this abuse of the liberty of the press by a new bill, calculated to *fix responsibility*, and prevent an evasion of punishment for seditious or libellous paragraphs. This bill, said the framer of it, would *restore* the liberty of the press, and secure it against 'non-responsible licentiousness.' Other members, however, condemned the bill as having a very different tendency; but the opposers of the measure could not prevent its adoption.

The disturbances in Ireland gave rise to various debates. Mr. Sheridan moved, on the 14th of June, that a committee should be appointed to inquire into the causes of the rebellion which had broken out in that kingdom; but, after a *private* discussion of the subject (for the gallery of the house was shut against all strangers, and those who might have procured intelligence from members were strictly prohibited from publishing any account of the proceedings), the motion was rejected by a majority of 116. A proposed address, remonstrating against the system pursued with regard to Ireland, was also exploded. On the following day, the duke of Leinster urged the peers to vote an address, requesting full information relative to Hibernian affairs, and promising a complete investigation of the causes, nature, and extent of the prevailing disorders. The dukes of Devonshire and Bedford, and several other peers, supported the motion; but, on a division, a considerable majority appeared against it. On the 18th a message from the king was delivered, desiring that he might be enabled to accept the services of such regiments of the British militia as might wish to be employed against the Irish rebels. When Mr. Dundas moved for an address of assent, Mr. Sheridan and other speakers were unwilling to trust the ministers with the power of sending the militia out of the kingdom, as it was inconsistent with the express conditions on which that body was first established. The address,



however, was sanctioned. The concerns of Ireland were again discussed on the 22d, when lord George Cavendish in vain recommended an inquiry, with a view to the adoption of a conciliatory system. Among the peers, a motion from the earl of Besborough, and one from the duke of Bedford, tending to the same object, furnished fresh proofs of the inutility of contending against the court.

The business of the session being completed, his majesty prorogued the two houses on the 29th of June. The chief features of his speech were praises of the proceedings of parliament, boasts of the flourishing state of commerce, commendations of the late display of loyal zeal, and hopes of a speedy suppression of the Irish rebellion.

During the session, by an impotent mark of resentment, the name of the leader of opposition was erased from the list of privy counsellors. The immediate cause of this exclusion of Mr. Fox from an assembly attended only by his adversaries, was an attack which he made on the system of the court in a speech delivered (on the first of May) at a meeting of the Whig club.

The incidents of the war, in this part of the year, were not very important. As the small islands of St. Marcou, near La Hogue, had been seized by the English, and were used as posts of observation, the French, on the 7th of May, sent a *flotilla* of gun-boats to dislodge the intruders: but the defenders of the isles made so firm a resistance, that the assailants were repelled with considerable loss. In the same month, commodore Popham and major-general Coote sailed towards Ostend, to attempt the destruction of sluices and other works. A body of soldiers, on the 19th, landed to the eastward of that town; which, during the disembarkation, was set on fire in different parts by bombs. The gates and sluices of the canal leading to Bruges, were blown up by well-contrived mines; and, in this service, the zeal and attention of lieutenant Brownrigg were, (says the major-general) eminently conspicuous. But, from the violence of the wind and the surf, the re-embarkation of the

troops became impracticable ; and, the next morning, they were attacked by a far superior number of republicans. They fought for some time with great intrepidity, animated by the example of their commander, who was severely wounded in the action. At length, they were obliged to surrender themselves prisoners of war, to the number of above 1100 individuals. The killed, wounded, and missing, were about 150. We shall make no other remark on this expedition, than that its success and advantages have been greatly exaggerated.

Before we enter upon other parts of our general survey, the alacrity of the higher and middling classes in Great-Britain, in forming defensive associations, must be mentioned with that applause which is due to patriotic zeal. But we by no means concur with those prejudiced and illiberal men who consider a reluctance to arming as a mark of disaffection, and represent themselves as the only true friends of their country.

#### I R E L A N D.

The commotions of the Hibernian kingdom, which might perhaps have been prevented by early prudence, at length assumed the complexion of treason and rebellion. The malcontent leaders, without waiting for such assistance as the French might be disposed to afford them, resolved to have recourse to arms for the assertion of their supposed rights. They formed a plan for an attack of the friends of government in the chief seat of their power, the metropolis of the kingdom. While they were preparing for the execution of this bold scheme, some of them were apprehended and imprisoned. Lord Edward Fitzgerald, being discovered at a house in Dublin, fiercely resisted those who attempted to seize him; but, being wounded in the conflict, he was overpowered and taken into custody. The agitation and anxiety of his mind increasing the ill effect of his wounds, he did not long linger in prison.



As the critical state of affairs required great vigilance and precaution, the proceedings of the government were proportioned to the danger. The 23d of May was the day appointed for the rebellious attack of the capital; but the strong measures which were adopted prevented the execution of that scheme. Early on the 24th, however, about 1000 men, furnished with pikes and musquets, approached the town of Naas, and made an assault upon the king's troops. They fought with spirit, though not with perseverance. Being firmly opposed, they fled with precipitation. Above 100 of them were killed. In another engagement, on the hills of Kilcullen, a greater number fell. Skirmishes, in some of which the insurgents had the advantage, occurred on the same day in various parts.

The open hostilities of the disaffected party excited such resentment, that a resolution was hastily adopted by the lord-lieutenant and council, for the summary punishment of the rebels and their assistants by the cruelties of martial law. A proclamation to that effect was officially announced. When it was under consideration in the house of commons, colonel Maxwell recommended an extension of the same code to the persons who had been imprisoned on suspicion of treasonable guilt. Other members, whose zeal was equally warm, wished for the exercise of a rigor which they affected to deem necessary; but lord Castlereagh deprecated the measure, justly observing, that it would brand the administration of the viceroy with the imputation of cruelty, and reduce it to the same degraded and sanguinary level with that government which aimed at the destruction of our happy constitution. The house did not acquiesce in the colonel's proposals, but merely sanctioned the proclamation.

It cannot be expected that we should detail every action between the rebels and the king's forces; it will be sufficient for our narrow limits to mention the more important engagements. Near Dunlavin, 3000 of the insurgents were encountered by a detachment of militia and yeomanry, and

totally defeated, with the loss of about 300 men. On the hill of Taragh, 350 of their party are said to have lost their lives, in a conflict which, according to the official account, proved fatal to only nine of their adversaries. At Catherlogh, about 400 fell.

The flames of rebellion were not prevented from spreading by the vigorous efforts of those who wished to extinguish them. Insurrections broke out in the southern parts of the province of Leinster; and it was apprehended that the strength of the malcontents would exert itself more effectually in those districts. In the mean time, however, many of their brethren in the neighbourhood of Dublin delivered up their arms, and even surrendered some of their leaders. Another party, when sir James Duff advanced to take possession of Kildare, seemed inclined to follow that example; but, some individuals firing at the yeomen who were sent by sir James to demand submission, his troops fiercely assaulted the rebels, and killed 200 of them. Newtown-Barry being attacked by a considerable body, the militia of King's-county acted with such vigor, that the insurgents were routed with great slaughter.

At New-Ross, in the shire of Wexford, the rebels sustained a greater loss than in any former engagement. On the 5th of June, they attacked major-general Johnson, and maintained the contest for several hours; but were at length repelled. It is said, in the Gazette, that their loss was 'prodigiously great.' A private letter states that it amounted to 3000; but this is evidently an exaggeration: perhaps one half of that number fell. On the part of the victors, of whom (it is said) only about 100 were killed, the most lamented death was that of lord Mountjoy.

The north of Ireland, though less agitated than the south, was not free from commotion. An armed party seized the town of Antrim, of which, however, the friends of the government soon regained possession. After some inconsiderable conflicts, major-general Nugent defeated a numerous



body near Ballinahinch on the 12th, killing about 400; a victory which produced the submission of a great number of the rebels. Monro, one of their leaders, would have been delivered up by his accomplices; but his capture rendered that act of treachery unnecessary.

The chief rebel force was now in the south. A considerable body engaged major-general Needham at Arklow, and sustained for some hours an incessant fire of grape-shot. Confusion then arose among the diminished ranks of the assailants, who fled in various directions. At Wexford the party resolved to make a firm stand; and, on the other hand, the government made great preparations for crushing the remains of rebellious opposition by surrounding the foe at that town.

The rebellion still wearing an aspect of terror, his majesty was advised to send to Ireland a nobleman whose military fame and general reputation might make an impression on the enemy, favorable to the speedy return of peace. A peer of this description was the marquis Cornwallis, who was therefore commissioned to supersede earl Camden. He landed at Dublin on the 20th of June; and he immediately devoted his attention to the momentous concerns of his station, and to the best means of restoring order and tranquillity.

The new viceroy had scarcely entered upon his office, when he was gratified with intelligence of advantages obtained in the south. The strong post of Enniscorthy was assaulted on the 21st by general Lake, and was forced, but with small loss of the defenders. Brigadier Moore, having defeated and dispersed a rebel *corps*, took post near Wexford; and his appearance so intimidated the insurgents, that they relinquished all thoughts of defending the town, and sent proposals of submission, which were answered by a declaration, importing that no attention would be paid to any 'terms offered by rebels in arms against their sovereign.' They now fled in confusion, and the royalists took quiet possession of Wexford. Sir Thomas Williams, who had been ordered to

blockade the harbour, reduced with little difficulty the fort at the entrance of it, and destroyed about 100 boats and small vessels.

The fugitives were pursued by different detachments. Major-general Asgill twice defeated them; and other officers gained some advantages over them. But the peace of the country was not restored; for rebellious parties still appeared in various counties.

During these proceedings, many of the rebels were put to death by sentences of courts-martial; and, as they had been guilty of great barbarities in their treasonable career, the public in general did not deeply lament their fate. The humane, however, may think that a spirit of vengeance was too much indulged by the victors.

At Dublin, many of the imprisoned mal-contents were tried by the regular process of law, and condemned by verdicts of jurors. Among those who suffered death were two brothers of the name of Sheares, whose fate, though their delinquency was proved, excited much compassion.

Clemency at length began to take its turn. It was announced by the vice-roy, that a pardon would be granted for offences committed on or before a certain day, 'upon such conditions and with such exceptions as might be compatible with the public safety.' But these 'offers of mercy to the repentant' were not intended to preclude 'measures of vigor against the obstinate.'

While the proclamation of amnesty was operating on the minds of the mal-contents, the secret committee of the commons, having fully developed the schemes of treason, delivered (on the 21st of August) a long report to the house. It was intimated by the investigators, that the society of United Irishmen had been formed in 1791; that, 'from its commencement, the real purpose of those who were at the head of the institution, was to separate Ireland from Great-Britain, and to subvert the established constitution;' but that, for some time, they did not avow their real aims; that a di-



rect communication was at length opened with the French, whose concurrence was solicited and promised; that, in 1796, arms and ammunition were provided by the party, and 'the most active system of terror was put in operation' against magistrates, jurors, and all who ventured to support the laws; that the orders for disarming the mal-contents, and other measures of government, checked for a time the outrages of the faction; but that the spirit of sedition and treason revived before the close of 1797; that Arthur O'Connor and lord Edward Fitzgerald were among the leaders of the party; that the French were repeatedly urged to send succours; and that the conspirators would not at last have rebelled without such aid, if the vigorous measures of the court had not rendered it necessary for them either to 'rise at once, or to abandon their purpose.' A report, similar in substance, was presented to the house of lords on the 30th.

While the Irish were rapidly submitting, about 1000 of their Gallic friends appeared on the coast in three frigates, and disembarked near Killala on the 22d of August. The invading force was contemptible; but it excited as much terror as if a numerous army had landed. Scarcely any of the natives joined the French; and it might have been expected that the efforts of the mere yeomanry of the loyal county of Mayo would have enforced their surrender. But the lord-lieutenant deemed it expedient to undertake a personal expedition against them with a considerable army. Before the marquis appeared, however, they attacked general Lake at Castlebar, and compelled him to retire in such disorder, that he left behind him six pieces of cannon. His force, it is said, was less than 1000 men: he was assaulted in an unprepared state; and the English fencibles in his *corps* did not act with due spirit. When the vice-roy approached the French, he made dispositions for joining with general Lake in an attack, or for intercepting their retreat. On the 8th of September, near Ballinamuck, Lake encountered the enemy, who, after a short resistance, surrendered at discre-

tion. This success over a small band of invaders, did not deserve the pompous praises which the marquis publicly bestowed on the troops.

## F R A N C E.

The elections of members for the two French councils, which had for some time kept all parties in anxious suspense, were at length completed. But a great number of the new deputies were so obnoxious to the directory, that an arbitrary resolution was formed against them. On the 2d of May, a message was sent to the council of five hundred, intimating the necessity of excluding many of the persons lately elected, as their views were hostile to the constitution. After a pretended investigation of the subject by an obsequious committee, the offensive elections were declared void by the council, notwithstanding the remonstrances of general Jourdan and other members; and the assembly of elders sanctioned the exclusion.

Lots were drawn about this time for the retreat of one of the directors from office; and it was the fate of Neuf-Château to go out. His successor was Treilhard, the negotiator.

The financial discussions of the legislature were frequent. On one of these occasions, Villers declared that, towards the sum of 616 millions of livres, the supposed amount of the expences of the year, 200 millions had not been received in eight months; and he frankly acknowledged the difficulty of answering the enormous demand. In another year, he flattered himself that there would be a diminution of expenditure.

For some months, the debates of the two councils have been such as would not interest the general reader. On the 1st of July, their discussions were interrupted by the annunciation of the success of the French arms in the Mediterranean.

For a considerable time, the French had been making extraordinary preparations for a secret expedition. When the politicians of Europe had long amused themselves with spe-



culations on the object of these equipments, intelligence arrived of the conquest of Malta.

With thirteen ships of the line and six frigates (according to the French accounts), and transports containing a numerous army, general Buonaparte and admiral Brueys sailed from Toulon in May; and, having eluded the vigilance of sir Horatio Nelson, appeared near the coast of Malta on the 9th of June. The grand master was requested to allow the French to supply the ships with water at the different anchorages of the island; but he refused to grant them that indulgence. They immediately prepared for a descent; and, the next morning, the troops landed amidst a fierce cannonade from the fortifications of the capital. The neighbouring isle of Gozzo was seized by one party of the invaders; and the southern parts of Malta were reduced by another detachment. The inhabitants, filled with consternation, sought refuge in the town, from which the effusions of the artillery were tremendous. The French now began to make dispositions for a regular siege; but, on the 11th, the grand master proposed a truce, which was followed by a treaty for the surrender of the island and its dependencies. Thus an island which had withstood the most vigorous assaults from Turkish armaments, and had, for above two centuries and a half, maintained its dignity and independence, was reduced by the French in two days.

Leaving about 4000 men to garrison the forts of Malta, Buonaparte proceeded up the Mediterranean. It was supposed that he would endeavour to add Candia or Cyprus to the possessions of the republic; but it at length appeared, after a variety of idle reports, that he had bent his course to Egypt, and had disembarked at Alexandria; while Nelson, weary of a fruitless search, rested in the road of Syracuse.

With regard to the future operations of Buonaparte, it is more probable that he will take measures for establishing the French dominion in Egypt, than that he will, at present, attempt to penetrate to India either by the way of the Red-Sea or the Persian Gulf. Whatever may be his views, his

movements cannot but excite a strong alarm in the breasts of those princes who know his valor and ability, and reflect on the resources which he has at his command,

## H O L L A N D.

When we gave an account of the revolution which occurred in the Batavian republic in January last, we expressed our conviction that it was principally occasioned by the intrigues of M. de la Croix. The party which he supported in Holland had the chief sway for some months; but, the leaders having rendered themselves obnoxious to the public, the generals Daendels and Joubert, apparently in concert with the members of the Parisian directory, to whom the Batavian rulers had given some disgust, resolved to attempt the subversion of the power of that party. Marching at the head of two companies of grenadiers, Daendels, on the 12th of June, entered a house in which the five Dutch directors were assembled, arrested one of them, and compelled two to resign their posts, while the two others made their escape. De la Croix was sent under a guard to the house of Joubert: the most violent members of the legislature were apprehended; and a new directory was constituted. A proclamation appeared on the 14th, accusing the displaced directors of having violated the liberties of the people, and of aiming at the establishment of a complete system of tyranny. As an instance of their arbitrary views, it was alleged, that the Batavian nation had scarcely accepted the constitution, and determined by its sovereign will the mode of electing its representatives, when the majority of the constituent assembly arrogated the title and functions of the legislative body of the state, thus depriving the people of the right of appointing that body by a new election.

## GERMANY.

Time has not yet confirmed the opinion of those who imagined that the emperor would re-enter into the crusade against France. It is certain, however, that he has encouraged mili-



tary preparations throughout his dominions. The proceedings of the French, perhaps, appear to him to threaten all Europe with subjection, or at least with disorder and confusion, unless a powerful confederacy should be formed against them.

The remonstrances of the French, with regard to the treatment which Bernardotte received from the populace at Vienna, were followed by the dismissal of baron Thugut from the office of minister for foreign affairs. But they alleged, that this was no satisfaction, as it was previously the emperor's intention to discard the baron.

The disputes concerning the fate of the empire were more important. In addition to the conferences at Rastadt, some deliberations occurred at Seltz; but they were as fruitless as any of the preceding consultations. The French still affected a desire of peace, without taking those steps, or making those compliances, which would tend to its restoration. The opposite negotiators in vain represented the inconveniences and dangers which would result to the empire from the demands of the republicans; but their expostulations and complaints had little effect. After these general remarks, it may not be improper to state some particulars. In a note delivered at Rastadt on the 3d of May, the French plenipotentiaries required, among other demands, that the islands of the Rhine should belong to the republic; that the navigation of the rivers that flow into the Rhine, and indeed of all the great rivers of Germany, should be free to both nations; that the fort of Kehl and its territory should appertain to the French; that the fortress of Ehrenbreitstein should be demolished; and that all the public debts of the countries on the left bank of the Rhine should be transferred to the districts on the right. The imperial negotiators replied, that the sovereignty of the islands in question would depend on their proximity to the right or left bank; and they ventured to object to the other requisitions. After some delay, the French consented to a relaxation of the rigor of particular demands, but insisted on those which were most unpleasing to

the imperialists. The latter again requested a dereliction of the high pretensions of the republicans. The French, however, were pertinacious in their principal requisitions; and no agreement took place.

His Prussian majesty has been eagerly solicited by the enemies of France to take an active part in a new continental war. Sieyes, who has been deputed to his court by the directory, has been equally zealous on the other side; and the king seems inclined to remain at peace. For this forbearance he has been assailed with the most scurrilous invectives by the advocates for a new coalition, by the very men who affect, in other cases, to consider the smallest disrespect to a crowned head as a mark of great political depravity, democratic infatuation, and Jacobin rancor.

#### SWITZERLAND.

Though the French succeeded in their attacks upon the independence of the Swiss cantons, the people, in several of the provinces, rose against their oppressors. In the months of May and June, the opposite parties had various conflicts, which terminated in favour of the French.

At Aarau, the seat of the Helvetic legislature, the details of the new settlement employed the deliberations of the two assemblies, styled the senate and the great council. When the constitution had been completed, a treaty of close alliance was concluded between the French and Helvetic republics. In the article which related to the grant of military aid, it was stipulated, that the Swiss troops should never be sent beyond sea.

Before the signature of this treaty, strong complaints were made of the depredations, cruelties, and other arbitrary proceedings of the French. Not only the people in general murmured, but the new directory and the two councils remonstrated upon the subject. The commissary Rapinat was one of the chief objects of the resentment and odium of the Swiss. That officer, in defending his conduct, treated the



Swiss with *hauteur* and contempt; and general Schauenburg answered their complaints with equal arrogance. The former insisted on some official changes calculated for the exclusion of his principal opponents: and compliance was speedily enforced. But the clamors now became so vehement, that orders were sent for the recall of Rapinat, and the re-instatement of the persons whom he had displaced.

The union of the territory of Geneva with the French republic claims a short notice before we dismiss the affairs of Switzerland. That petty state had been suffered by its democratic neighbours to retain a shadow of independence; but it was at length resolved that it should be incorporated with the *great nation*. Affecting extraordinary moderation, however, the French disclaimed all views of union, unless it should be solicited by the Genevese themselves. The latter were not inclined to such a change; but all means, except open force, were employed to draw from them an application for so great a favor. At length the French pretended that an incorporation was desired by the Genevese; and a treaty was signed in the spring of this year, admitting all the inhabitants of the city and territory of Geneva to the privileges of native Frenchmen, exempting them from all requisitions during the present war, and granting them other favors in return for the surrender of their sovereignty.

### I T A L Y.

Gallic influence is still prevalent to the southward of the Alps. The king of Sardinia totters on his throne, from the interposition of his new allies. The intrigues of their emissaries, operating on the minds of his discontented subjects, have for some years produced insurrections in his provinces. As the rulers of the Ligurian republic encouraged these disturbances, a war seemed likely to arise between that state and his Sardinian majesty. This prince met with some success against the insurgents in May and June: but, as his troops, in the course of their hostilities, entered the confines of the Genoese state, loud complaints were made on the

occasion; and, in the debates of the two councils, the court of Turin was attacked with all the fury of invective.—Pleased with an intrusion of which no just government would take advantage, the Ligurian directory published a proclamation, amounting in substance to a declaration of war. A considerable army now took the field, and several conflicts ensued. The Genoese were desirous of continuing the war, for the extension of the limits of their republic; but Brune, the French commander in Italy, interposed between the parties; and, as each had taken some towns from the other, he ordained, that these posts should be occupied by French troops till the definitive treaty should be adjusted. Not content with this assumption of power, he took a step which rendered him almost the master of Piedmont. As he had been requested by the king to assist him in providing for the security of his dominions, he proposed that the insurgents should be gratified with an amnesty; and, having complained of the murder of the subjects of France by the Piedmontese, required that the citadel of Turin should be garrisoned with French soldiers, thus serving as a pledge for the good intentions of his majesty, and his fidelity to his allies. Not daring to refuse compliance, the king agreed (on the 26th of June) to a convention for the admission of the turbulent republicans into the fortress of his capital. In a proclamation, he represented this compliance as the only expedient for the termination of a dangerous war; and, being assured of the ‘friendly and pacific intentions of the French government,’ he commanded all his subjects to treat the foreign troops with respect. About 1500 of the French took possession of the citadel on the 3d of July; but hostilities did not immediately cease; for, on the succeeding day, an attempt was made for the surprisal of the city of Alexandria, which was saved, however, by the courage of a body of horse. Plenipotentiaries were now appointed to negotiate a treaty of peace between the king and the Genoese; but they were not suffered to treat in Italy, being ordered to repair to the French metropolis for the accommodation of all disputes under the eye of the imperious directory.



That the king of Sardinia will long retain his crown or his territories, can scarcely be expected. The republican sword hangs over him, ready to separate the slender ties which yet prevent his diadem from falling.

With regard to the pope, it was supposed that the French would not suffer the grand duke of Tuscany to give him an asylum in his dominions. They did not, however, molest the unfortunate pontiff: but he was disturbed in his retreat by an explosion different from that of a revolutionary volcano. We allude to an earthquake which happened at Sienna on the 25th of May. Most of the churches and monasteries, as well as other buildings, were damaged on this occasion; and some lives were lost. The convent in which the pope resided suffered from the shock; but he escaped all injury. At the desire of the grand duke, he afterwards repaired to the environs of Florence, and fixed his residence in a Carthusian monastery. He receives occasional presents from the opulent Italians, and derives emolument from the revenues of some religious foundations. The republic formed in the territory of which he was dispossessed, has been in a state of great agitation since his flight from Rome. Discontent has produced insurrections; and, when one has been suppressed, another has broken out. Factions in the capital have increased the disorders of the state; and the arbitrary and impolitic proceedings of the new governors are not calculated to allay the disturbances.

The British court and the French directory have been, for some time, contending for a superiority of influence over the king of Naples, the former being desirous of drawing that monarch into a confederacy, and the latter being equally eager to prevent him from giving the smallest aid to the anti-republican cause.

Much was expected by the directory from the intrigues of Garat, who was sent ambassador to Naples, and who, we may suppose, was instructed to threaten Ferdinand with a revolution, if he should not accede to the demands of the French. The king amused this envoy with promises of

adhering to his engagements with the republic; but, at the same time, he made such preparations as seemed to evince an intention of opposing the views of the disturbers of the peace of Italy; and it is said, that he has lately concluded a treaty of alliance with the emperor of Germany.

#### T U R K E Y.

The grand signor has been urged by different courts to take arms against the French, whose progress in the Levant, said the ministers of those courts, would otherwise endanger the stability of his throne. His determination is not yet announced; but he endeavours at present to secure himself, as far as the repression of all seditious intrigues and attempts, by a vigorous exercise of internal *police*, will avail. His troops have also acted with spirit against the rebel Paswan Oglou, the pacha of Widin. That active warrior gained some advantages in the summer; but he was reduced to extremity by a succession of attacks; and, if we may give credit to recent accounts, he has desisted from his revolt on conditions of pardon and promotions. In all probability, however, his reconciliation with his sovereign will not be permanent.

#### R U S S I A.

We are sorry to observe, that the progress of the reign of the emperor Paul is less honorable to his character than the commencement of it. His edicts respecting trivial articles of dress may be said to denote a narrow mind; and his restrictions upon the press, and suppressions of various seminaries of instruction, are arbitrary and impolitic.

But, when we consider the danger of the unresisted progress of the French on the continent, we shall be less disposed to blame him for some other parts of his conduct.—He has, in a great measure, relinquished his system of neutrality; has sent a fleet to co-operate with the English; has levied a numerous army; and has instructed his ambassadors at Berlin and Constantinople to promote a confederacy against the French.



## SWEDEN AND DENMARK.

The courts of Stockholm and Copenhagen have not manifested any inclination to embark in the projected league, being either of opinion that the danger is not so great as other courts suppose it to be, or that their endeavours will not be very efficacious in stemming the torrent. Their perseverance in neutrality is censured by some as blind obstinacy, and applauded by others as manly firmness.

## NORTH-AMERICA.

Passing across the Atlantic from the north of Europe, we behold a respectable nation preparing for its defence against a haughty foe, whom it provoked by its preference of the friendship of a state formerly its parent.

In consequence of the intimation of the American president, that the envoys of the republic had been unsuccessful in their negotiations at Paris, it was proposed by a member of the legislature, on the 26th of March, that an embargo should be laid on American ships, with some exceptions; but this motion was rejected. Other propositions were attended with better success; namely, that of improving the fortifications of maritime towns, and that of raising an army.

The majority of the inhabitants of the United States were inclined to enter into a war with the French, if the latter should persist in their unjustifiable conduct; and addresses from various parts of the country were offered to the president, applauding his zeal for the defence of the state, and promising cordial support to the government. A strong party, however, wished to avoid hostilities, unless the French should actually make war upon the Americans; and the members of this *faction* (as the more zealous friends of the government termed the party) warmly opposed, in the congress, some of the measures which were recommended as expedient for national security.

While the senate and the house of representatives were employed in debates on the critical state of affairs, and in the

preparation of bills, Mr. Gerry, the envoy who remained at Paris, received a letter from Talleyrand, complaining of the strange accounts which had appeared respecting a private negotiation, carried on by intriguing persons with a view of imposing on the American ministers. When several epistles had passed on this occasion, Talleyrand published a vindication of himself, 'denying that the propositions of the individuals who had conferred with the envoys had been authorised by him, except that which related to an exchange of Batavian inscriptions for cash: but his defence met with no credit, particularly as he slurred over the conference in which he himself demanded a contribution of 50,000 pounds for the directory.

On the 5th of June, dispatches, recently received from the envoys, were communicated to the congress. It was stated by those ministers, that, when they conferred with M. Talleyrand on the 2d of March, he hinted a loan in a very intelligible manner, but that they gave him the same answer which they had returned to the agents; and that, to their question, whether the adjustment of a loan was to be considered as the *ultimatum* of negotiation, no reply was made. On the 21st, accounts transmitted by Mr. Gerry were laid before the two houses; and the president also imparted to them the instructions which he had sent to the envoys, after the receipt of those letters in which they first mentioned the illiberal proposals of the French. He had desired Mr. Pinckney and his colleagues to break off the negotiation, and return to America, if they found that the negotiation was not conducted with candor on the part of the French, and that the latter aimed at procrastination; and he had properly added, 'In no event is a treaty to be purchased with money, by a loan or otherwise. There can be no safety in a treaty so obtained. A loan to the republic would violate our neutrality; and a *douceur* to the men now in power, might by their successors be urged as a reason for annulling the treaty, or as a precedent for repeated demands.' It was intimated by Mr. Gerry, that, when his two associates had been ordered to re-



tire out of the French dominions, Talleyrand had expressed a wish to resume the negotiation with him; but that he had alleged the informality and impropriety of his treating separately, as his powers depended on the co-operation of the other envoys.

The deliberations of the congress at length completed several bills of importance. One of these authorized the capture of all French cruisers which should commit, or should be found hovering on the coasts for the purpose of committing, any depredations on trade. Another bill prohibited all commercial intercourse between France and the United States; and a third tended to the exclusion of those aliens from whom dangerous intrigues might be apprehended.

As the opponents of the administration were eager and industrious in the propagation of their opinions, and as many of them were supposed to be influenced by a partiality for the cause of France, rather than by a patriotic desire of preventing a war which they might think would be injurious to the United States, a bill was brought forward for checking all seditious or inflammatory speeches and writings, and all attempts to obstruct the measures of government. It was vehemently opposed; but was ultimately sanctioned.

In the mean time, the preparations for war were carried on with great spirit. Voluntary contributions were offered to the state; the provincial youth eagerly entered into the naval or the military service; and, to crown the whole, the veteran Washington consented to resume that station of military command, in which he had so eminently contributed to the establishment of the independence of his country.

#### WEST-INDIES.

The British possessions in this part of the world have been diminished by the evacuation of some districts in the island of St. Domingo. The towns of Port-au-Prince and St. Marc not being conveniently or usefully tenable, brigadier-general Maitland prepared to quit them. To blow up the forts, and precipitately withdraw the regular forces and the colonial troops, appeared to him to be measures so repugnant to that

spirit of generosity and liberality which had ever actuated the British nation, and so certain of being attended with immediate and shocking scenes of bloodshed among the inhabitants, whose natural impetuosity of character would be increased by contending passions, deluded hopes, and different interests, that he resolved to act in a more open, honorable, and deliberate manner. He therefore stated his determination to all the parties concerned, and proposed to general Toussaint the surrender of the two towns and their dependencies in a state of perfect order, on condition that he would secure the lives and possessions of all persons who might wish to remain in those settlements. Toussaint having readily agreed to the proposal, and to a suspension of arms for five weeks, the evacuation was effected early in May. In the following month, the enemy attacked a weak British post, and reduced it, but not without considerable loss.

An expedition was undertaken in June against Aux-Cayes. When the armament had reached the Baye des Anglois, near which colonel Dessources was expected with a strong party that had marched across the country, an attempt was made for a disembarkation; but the surf was too violent to permit it without great danger. The enterprise was therefore relinquished.

#### EAST-INDIES.

By dispatches which arrived in June, we learn that a revolution was effected in India about the beginning of the year. The youth who had succeeded his father as nabob of Oude, became so obnoxious to the government of Bengal, that a resolution was formed for transferring his authority to his uncle. The young prince was deposed without bloodshed or disturbance. This bold measure is said to have been necessary for the safety of the British provinces in Hindostan. We forbear to enlarge upon it, as notice has been given, by a member of the house of commons, that he will, early in the next session, subject it to parliamentary investigation.



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